

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

Vol. 61

DECEMBER, 1910.

No. 1



The Revolution and the Republic in Portugal

Little Portugal, a country deemed decadent and stagnant for many years, has treated the whole world to great surprises. The outbreak of the revolution early in October amazed all but a few acute observers who were exceptionally familiar with the Portuguese situation. There had, it is true, been much talk of dissatisfaction and unrest; reports had been published telling of political chaos, the utter inefficiency and impotence of the court, the short-lived ministries, the parliamentary parties. In the early part of 1908 the world was shocked by a sudden attack on the royal family and the assassination in the streets of Lisbon of King Carlos and the crown prince. These tragic events were the result of years of misrule and corruption, of plunder through taxation, and of oppression of the peasantry and the commercial classes by a parasitical set of courtiers, politicians, and officeholders. It was charged—and it is still asserted—that the so-called conservatives, liberals and progressives of the country had worked out a system of "rotation in office" whereby each of the parties had its "chance" at a certain interval at the business of "governing for revenue only," at raiding the national treasury, creating offices and pensions, establishing privileges and distributing favors. A benevolent dictatorship had been attempted by Premier Franco, a fit and honest man, but none of the parties had supported him. Even the Republicans, ardent reformers, could not approve of the measures of repression

and suspension of constitutional guaranties that Franco found it necessary to adopt.

After the assassinations and the accession of the "boy king," Manoel, to the throne better things were promised for a while. The youthful king was not intellectually prepared for his duties and burdens, he was fond of pleasure and light-hearted; but he seemed ready to coöperate with his ministers, to institute reforms and serve the nation. However, the incompetents and the "grafters" soon regained control of affairs. Intrigue followed intrigue, cabinet succeeded cabinet, and even a general election failed to improve the situation. Fraud and bribery charges against many of the elected deputies brought political life to a standstill; parliament was paralyzed. The country was seemingly without hope and without moral courage or energy. It was "dying," apparently.

A few knew that regeneration was still possible for Portugal. The Republican party had steadily grown, especially in Lisbon, Oporto and other centers, had elected a group of deputies and had attracted much of the intellect, the virtue and the character of the professional and educated elements. Uprisings had been talked of and feared; plots in the interest of a republic had been suspected by the king's immediate servants. But no one could have imagined a short, sharp, and decisive military-naval "revolution" and the overthrow and flight of the House of Braganza.

The revolution was precipitated by the murder of Prof. Bombarda, one of the Republican leaders, a physician of international reputation, and by a serious difficulty between the Vatican and the Portuguese government. Clerical usurpation was apprehended, and the Republicans decided to strike first. The people took little part in the revolt; a few regiments of troops and several naval officers, including an admiral, had been won over by the radical reformers, and when the signal was given these forces

made an attack on the palace and on the arsenals. The loyal troops resisted for some hours, but the ministers and higher officers rendered little assistance. In forty-eight hours Portugal had become a republic under an extraordinary provincial government of scholars, university professors, authors, poets, and high-minded lawyers. The military commanders lost no time in giving their adhesion and allegiance to the new regime, and the King had to seek safety in exile.

On the whole the provisional government headed by Señor Braga, an ardent and patriotic reformer, has given a good account of itself. It did not prevent regrettable mob assaults on innocent priests and monks, but it prevented the spread of such riots and restored order and civil peace. Its proclamations reminded one of the glowing literature of the French Revolution, but its program of reforms is at once practical and urgent. It has promised separation of church and state, decentralization, local and colonial autonomy, eradication of abuses in administration, popular education, economy, independence for the judiciary, reform of taxation and finance, etc. The expulsion of the monastic orders was a step in the interest of security and tranquility. The order of nobility has been abolished; the republic is to know no distinctions of caste or class.

There are those who assert that a mere conspiracy of average Republican politicians has overthrown the Portuguese monarchy, and that the people will restore the latter because they are loyal to the Braganza house and have nothing to hope for from a government of lawyers, dreamers, and incompetents. This is not the view of fair-minded observers and correspondents. The Portuguese masses are illiterate and ignorant, but they have so long endured injustice and oppression that they will doubtless welcome a change. The best and purest of the educated minority will surely give the republic a fair trial. Reform and re-

habilitation at home and in the colonies—and Portugal still has a vast colonial empire in Asia and Africa, with a population of perhaps 20,000,000—are still possible; all that is needed is honesty in government. Honesty, economy, ability and sympathy with progress should breathe new vitality into a people that once knew glory and prestige and that evinced wonderful genius for colonization.



A Long and Beautiful Life

Julia Ward Howe, the beloved and honored "grandmother" of the modern movement for the full political and legal enfranchisement of women, passed away in her Rhode Island home on the 17th of October, after an illness of a few days only. Born in 1819, Mrs. Howe may be said to have witnessed and participated in the struggles, movements, and achievements of three generations. Her education, home life, and social position, her gentleness and intellectual gifts, her charm and quiet strength had fitted her for a life of noble and fruitful activity, of leadership in worthy and progressive causes. She was a true, a patriotic American, a New England "radical" and philosopher of the school of Emerson and Sumner and Lowell, and a consistent, ardent champion of freedom, justice and equality. She is best known nationally, and perhaps will be remembered in history chiefly, as the author of that passionate, lyrical poem, "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," a poem born of the stress and storm of the civil war. Artistically, the poem is not flawless, but its inspiration and vitality, its genuine fervor, its faith and idealism have made it immortal. It was composed after a sleepless night in the dawn of a fall day in Washington, the singing of the troops of the air of "John Brown" while rushing to the front having suggested to her the need of more appropriate words.

Mrs. Howe had written poems on Greek and Hungarian aspirations to freedom, and essays on many literary, ethical, educational, and social subjects. She was dis-

trustful of the New England Abolitionists at first, but personal contact with their leading orators and campaigners completely changed her attitude. After the war and its first problems or consequences in the North and South, in which consequences Mrs. Howe took a profound interest, she devoted herself to the elevation of woman's status and the equal suffrage movement.

Her whole life was one of humanitarian service. She enjoyed battling for her ideals and convictions, though there was nothing aggressive about her manner. In debate she was powerful and in argument effective and persuasive, but her appeal was ever to the reason and the sense of justice. She was fearless, scornful of abuse and ridicule, persistent and serene. At 70 she considered herself young, at 80 she declared that the aims of her life had been and were "to learn, to teach, to serve and to obey," and at 90 she still addressed public meetings, appeared before legislatures and investigating committees, and followed with deep interest the progress throughout the world of the causes she had cherished and promoted. Her writings were many, but she herself preferred the famous Battle Hymn to everything else.



A Senate or National Assembly for China

The astonishing "constitutional" program of the late empress-dowager of China is being astonishingly adhered to and carried into effect. There is now every reason for believing that in 1915—the time originally set,—if not even sooner, China will see the actual establishment of a full-fledged parliament under a real constitution.

Over a year ago Provincial Assemblies were established, and their first sessions were regarded as remarkably successful even by skeptical European observers. They considered local as well as imperial matters, and passed notable resolutions. Last September, again according to the original promise, an imperial Senate or National As-

sembly was created and called together. Of the 200 members of this body—whose functions at present are largely if not wholly advisory and rather indeterminate—half were appointed by the throne and half by the provincial assemblies. The former half includes princes, nobles, relatives of the imperial house, thirty-two high officials, ten large taxpayers, and ten distinguished scholars. The appointees of the provincial assemblies must be approved by the several viceroys or governors.

The court means to keep a strong and restraining hand on the Senate, to prevent too hasty or too radical action, but the world is assured of the sincere purpose of the throne to encourage free discussion in the Senate and to prepare, through such discussion, the people of the empire for parliamentary institutions of the western type. That the Senate is not too timid or subservient is shown by the fact that it promptly adopted a resolution asking that the promised parliament be convened earlier than the fixed date. This resolution has greatly impressed the court.

There are those who still assert that Chinese reforms are "paper changes" and that the old order has hardly been disturbed in the interior. It is true, of course, that no reform is real if education, the courts, the administration, the tax system, the treatment of industry and commerce are not affected by it in a marked degree. Travellers do not agree in their accounts of the progress of China in the directions indicated, but preconceived opinion generally determines the tone and color of their reports.

Certain it is that China is beginning to build railroads, open mines, improve her schools and reorganize her administration. Two universities are to be opened, with missionary and other aid from Great Britain. One will be at Hong Kong, with English as its language; its degrees will be recognized by English universities. The other will be in the heart of China and Chinese in every way. Both will train Chinese youths for professional, public, and technical

careers. The interest of Chinese merchants and officials in these projected universities—that at Hong Kong is already being built—is one of the healthy and favorable signs of regeneration and awakening.



The Great Struggle for Honesty and Justice

Another congressional election is over. "The people have spoken" in the several districts and states. They have spoken more emphatically here, more radically there, rather conservatively in other places. The platforms and the speeches of the candidates were by no means alike. The New York Republicans would shrink from such "insurgent" platforms as Kansas, Iowa, Oregon, and Wisconsin Republicans adopted with enthusiasm and an aggressive spirit. The Democrats, like the Republicans, find that their western platforms are totally different productions, in manner if not in matter, from the eastern ones. The question is not one of simple sincerity in leaders and platform builders. It is a question of taking cognizance of facts—of public sentiment and local "atmospheric conditions," political and moral. It is an unfair and superficial view to take of politics—the view that all inconsistencies and anomalies are attributable to the fact that these or those politicians are hypocritical and shift. There is no doubt plenty of hypocrisy and humbug in politics, but there are also differences in ideas and feelings that are due to various conditions, and these differences cannot be ignored by leaders. Masses of Republicans and Democrats in certain states may like such "radical" things as the initiative, the referendum, the recall, nominations by small petitions without primaries or party machinery, short ballots, and the like. The Wisconsin Republicans go so far as to demand government ownership and operation of railroads and steamships in Alaska. But in several eastern and middle states even the progressive men in the great parties cannot be "carried" for such reforms. They are in sympathy with tariff reform, reason-

ably direct primaries, income taxation, popular election of federal senators, conservation of natural resources, further regulation of monopoly, but here they draw the line of safety and prudence. These facts will inevitably be reflected in platforms and campaign oratory.

In any given state the legislature and executive, if honest and intelligent, will endeavor to give effect to the ripe ideas of the voting majority. Congress, of course, has a more difficult situation to meet. It legislates for the whole nation, and the party in power must consult the sentiments of New York and New England as well as those of Oregon, Kansas, Iowa, and Wisconsin. It must be conservative-progressive or progressive-conservative, in short.

It is in the application of this truth that difficulties are encountered. What is the progressive-conservative position with reference to further trust legislation, for example, or further tariff revision, a parcels post, insurance and old-age pensions, etc?

But while there are natural differences of opinion as to particular reforms and legislative proposals, there is no room for differences as to the duty of all upright men to fight corruption, legislative alliances with franchise grabbers and greedy monopolies, traffic in votes and offices, unfair privilege at the expense of producers and consumers, waste or neglect of the national assets and resources. The "insurgent" movement is fundamentally a movement in the interest of true representative government, of honest legislation, of equality of opportunity,—a movement against practices and methods that would destroy this Republic and convert it into a plutocratic oligarchy. No election, no party defeat or victory, can affect the progress of this movement. It invades all parties, makes for independence and plays havoc with names, traditions, platforms, organizations. It elevates and degrades men, it uses parties as mere instruments, and it forces the adoption of new issues

and principles on the most reluctant. The present Congress during its short session and the one just elected are equally pledged to aid and promote the cause of elementary honesty and justice in national affairs. Woe to the party or faction that does not march with the times and the embattled hosts of citizens asking for righteousness.



Social Signs and Tendencies in Census Reports

The census bulletins now appearing daily and giving, without any particular plan or system, figures in regard to gains or losses of population by cities, counties, states, since 1900, convey important lessons to the students of national and social problems. Certain major facts are already apparent; others will emerge from time to time, at present only adumbrations and hints are available.

In the first place, the growth of population has been remarkably even throughout the country. The East has held its own, thanks to heavy immigration and to the continued development of manufactures, as well as to the concentration of financial power in the great eastern cities. The West, Northwest and Southwest have grown because of their natural resources and opportunities, and because of irrigation, dry farming, opening of public lands.

The growth has been largely urban. There are as yet few signs of the much-discussed drift to the country on the part of city dwellers. The cities have not grown at an absolutely uniform rate, special causes—like the rise of the automobile industry, for example—accounting for extraordinary gains in particular cities. New York City's gain of nearly 39 per cent. since 1900 is in every way phenomenal, but not all of the growth is healthy. Congestion and poverty are the unpleasant concomitants of too rapid urban development and poor distribution of population.

Where there has been decline or stagnation in population it is confined to rural districts. This is a symptom that all regard as unfavorable. The nation has been repeatedly

warned of late, especially in connection with the great conservation movement, that agriculture is, relatively speaking, being neglected, and that we are not producing as much food as we could and should produce, considering our needs in view of immigration and the birth-rate. Rural life is becoming attractive to weary urban toilers, but they do not usually succeed as farmers, and their number is as yet inappreciable. It is the peasant immigrants from Italy, Austria, Poland, Greece whom our deserted farms and unoccupied or wastefully cultivated land need, as they have training, experience with intensive cultivation, patience and skill. Not to encourage them to go to the agricultural regions is to intensify the evils of urban congestion, filth, misery and unemployment or extremely precarious employment at low wages.

The percentage of gain in the following table, comprising eighteen of our larger cities—omitting the largest—is sufficiently indicative of the general gains:

City.	Per cent. gain.	City.	Per cent. gain.
Milwaukee, Wis.....	31.	Cincinnati, O.....	11.8
Indianapolis, Ind.....	38.1	Providence, R. I.....	27.8
Newark, N. J.....	41.2	Toledo, O.....	27.8
Scranton, Pa.....	27.3	Buffalo, N. Y.....	20.2
Pittsburg, Pa., with		Denver, Col.....	59.4
Allegheny, Pa.....	18.2	Kansas City, Mo.....	51.7
Syracuse, N. Y.....	26.6	Jersey City, N. J.....	29.7
Detroit, Mich.....	63.	Paterson, N. J.....	19.4
St. Louis, Mo.....	19.4	District of Columbia.....	18.8
St. Paul, Minn.....	31.7		

The average gain is over thirty-nine per cent. for these cities. Forty-two smaller cities show an average increase of over forty-four per cent.



Holman Hunt and the Pre-Raphaelite Movement

The recent death of William Holman Hunt, the first and the last of the Pre-Raphaelites, may be said to have closed a very remarkable and fruitful period in English art. The

Pre-Raphaelite movement itself is now only a memory, a chapter of history, but the influence of the "Brotherhood" is still indirectly exerted. The old and stormy controversies are forgotten, but they led to a love of truth and sincerity in painting, to insistence on observation of nature and realism in its best sense. The movement itself was a protest against imitation, convention and artificiality; it had its origin, curiously enough, in the accidental examination by Hunt and Millais of a book of engravings of the frescoes in the Campo Santo at Pisa. Hunt wrote of this incident: "The innocent spirit which directed the invention of the painter was traced, point after point, with emulation by each of us, with a determination that a kindred simplicity should regulate our own ambition." The "Brotherhood" was organized by these two men and by Rossetti, a disciple of Hunt. Their first pictures bore the mysterious initials "P. R. B." and naturally stimulated curiosity and interest. Ruskin enthusiastically welcomed them and understood their tendencies and aims, but the average critic was unsympathetic, the public skeptical and puzzled. Their success came slowly, but it came and it was great. The mission of the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood was completely realized.

Millais and Rossetti had each their individual characteristics, the former developing a love of romance and fancy. Hunt's nature was profoundly religious, and his best pictures are symbolic, inspired by Scripture and the scenes actually visited by him in Palestine. His most popular work is "The Light of the World," but it is not considered to be his best picture in a technical sense. Hunt's early teaching was defective, owing to parental opposition to a painter's career for their gifted son, and he never acquired complete mastery of the art. But his pictures have thought, meaning, emotion, the inner light of conviction and nobility of thought and feeling. He is England's "Christian artist" par excellence, and his services to art, religion, and the humanities are appreciated even by the severest judges of his work.

The First South African "Union" Parliament

Last May the Union of South Africa was proclaimed and a ministry of Boer and British statesmen under the premiership of General Botha was formed. But the ministry had no parliament to work with, no majority to lean on, and it encountered much opposition. In September the first "general election" was held in United South Africa, a brief but exciting campaign preceding it. The parliament is remarkably representative, according to all accounts. The parties, with their respective strength, stand as follows: the Nationalist or Dutch, 67 members; the Unionist or British, 37; Natal Independents, 12; Labor, 4; Independent, 1. General Botha himself was defeated at Pretoria East by a leading Unionist, Sir Percy Fitzpatrick, but he has retained the premiership with the approval of all elements, as he is a moderate and able man who is determined "to stamp out rascalsm" in politics and govern South Africa loyally and progressively. The strength of the Unionists will make for balance and good government, curbing the extremists of the Dutch or Boer party who largely represent rural constituents. The Nationalists will have a working majority over all parties in any case, but to succeed the cabinet will need to practice conciliation and reasonableness.

It is unfortunate that the parties were hastily formed on the old racial lines. There were no large, general issues before the voters, the time for them not having come. Little was said in the campaign about the native suffrage, or the enfranchisement of the blacks, which will shortly assume vital importance as an issue in all the colonies of the Union except Cape Colony, where the natives already have the right to vote. Little was said about the prohibition of the sale of liquor to natives and about the use of coolie labor, other "impending" questions. There was too much recrimination and some of the stump oratory painfully reminded the saner elements of the "old" violent and bitter conflicts which led

to the war between England and the Boers. Britons accused Boers of sedition and treason; Dutch orators charged Britons with greedy and selfish designs, with arrogant ambition and hatred of everything Dutch.

It is hoped that these wholesale indictments will now be forgotten and that the first South African parliament will justify the expectations of the friends of the new nation the world over. All interests are well represented in the parliament—mining, agriculture, urban industry generally, labor. If racial differences are laid aside, the ability and statesmanship of South Africa will undoubtedly prove equal to the tasks demanding attention of the cabinet and parliament.



A Period Without Great Men of Letters

The death of "Mark Twain" and Bjornson, following the removal from the terrestrial sphere of other great writers and artists—Meredith, Swinburne, and others—has suggested to certain critics and editors rather melancholy thoughts. Tolstoy, says *Harper's Weekly*, is now without a peer or rival in literature, and he is the last of a remarkable group of men of exceptional creative power and originality. The *New York World* asks who will succeed the men we have lost, and goes on to write thus about them and the "void" their departure has created:

Of ripe age, they had outlived the changing tastes of their lifetime and towered over the present generation like giant oaks of the forest. It is not a question merely of the popularity of writers like Mark Twain, Tolstoy, Swinburne and Meredith, or of the number of editions, or of the count of their readers. It is that by common consent they have communicated to readers of varying classes and countries the feeling of their bigger and more powerful presence through the written word.

And who are to succeed them? Where are the substitutes for world-wide honors among the younger men? England offers Kipling, the man who was, not the political

pamphleteer. France's candidate, Anatole France, is by no means young, but eternally youthful by the sprightliness of his intellect. The rest of Europe presents Sudermann, Hauptmann, Maeterlinck, d'Annunzio, all somewhat short of the mark reached by their great predecessors. But who is the coming American?

In a lecture on "Literature and Business" at Columbia University, Mr. Henry Holt, the publisher, recently discussed the quality and quantity of the literary output of our day in somewhat similar vein. He was reported as saying:

"Our literature is plainly not what it was when Hawthorne and Emerson and Lowell and Holmes and Longfellow and Thackeray and George Eliot and Dickens and Tennyson and Browning were all writing at the same time. About fifty years ago the whole cultivated world was generally in happy expectation of new books from these authors. Now there is not an author whom the whole cultivated world awaits. How much do the other differences of that time from this account for the differences in literature? Then typewriters and telephones and trolley cars were unknown; football and baseball and boat-racing and the elective system were still in the embryo; engraving was done by hand, and there were but two magazines known to the polite world where there are now a dozen, and hardly any to the average world where there are now thousands; there were no Sunday newspapers, and everybody went to church and everybody took things easy.

"But strangely enough in our earlier and greater age of authorship most of the manuscripts offered to publishers could be safely rejected in five minutes, while in this slack water period of literature, nearly every manuscript is so well written as to justify considerable attention—enough to make the obtaining of opinions cost a considerable publishing house thousands of dollars annually."

Here the idea is that the technic of writing has improved, that much good, readable, interesting work is being done in literature, but that genius, supreme art, is sadly lacking, because the temper of the age and the influence of the commercial side of authorship, with the growing flippancy and superficiality of readers, militate against the cul-

tivation of grace, finish, charm of style and appropriateness of expression.

But a very different view, and a far more hopeful one, is taken by the *Chicago Record-Herald*, of our literary situation and the probable future judgment on our leading authors and artists. Without making any assertion as to individuals, the paper named reminds us of the fallibility of critics and the difficulty of doing justice to one's contemporaries as illustrated even in the cases of the greatest figures in history. To quote:

The very men whose greatness is now so tearfully emphasized were belittled, railed at, assailed in their early days as ridiculously unfit to hold up the standards of *their* predecessors, as mere imitators or worse. What was Meredith's lot for two decades or more? What was the attitude toward Ibsen in the eighties? How long Swinburne had to wait for recognition of the music of his verse, of his matchless power of expression, his exuberance and sweep! And was not Tennyson patronized for years as a second-rate or minor poet?

It has ever been thus. Distance and perspective are needed in literature and art for the appreciation of genius. Even Shakespeare, Bach, Beethoven, to say nothing of Wagner, had to overcome neglect, prejudice, stupidity, malice.

There are legitimate successors of the great dead in the world—only we are not ready to acknowledge their claims. We admire Maeterlinck, Rostand, Gorky, Andreieff, De Morgan, Hewlett, but we do not class them with the older dignitaries—with Hardy, James, France, Sudermann, Hauptmann, Howells. We talk of their good and fine work, but we deny them greatness. We may be right, but we may be wrong. We shall be wiser twenty years hence—wiser as to these authors and artists, but perhaps just as foolish in failing to recognize their heirs and successors, in wondering whether genius had departed from the earth. No, no; genius does not die; humanity throws up great men with reasonable uniformity, and history will credit this particular period with its full share of originality, force and merit.

NOTES

CENTENARIES OF DICKENS AND THACKERAY

If one needed a concrete instance of the unabated popular affection with which Dickens and Thackeray are regarded, such an instance can be found in the active interest which is being aroused in the approaching centenaries of these two leading novelists of the Victorian era. Thackeray was born July 18, 1811; Dickens, February 7, 1812. In both cases the anniversary is still far to seek. And yet, the London papers every now and then give space to some suggestion as to the proper manner of celebrating these approaching centenaries. So far, nothing has actually been done, except, we are told, by the second-hand bookshops of London, in the windows of which there are already being displayed a goodly number and variety of Dickens and Thackeray editions. An elaborate centenary de luxe edition of Thackeray, to contain a series of 500 new plates designed by Harry Furniss, is announced by one publisher, while another, the original publisher of the great satirist's works, will bring out an edition in twenty-six volumes, entirely under the direction of Lady Ritchie, who is editing the biographical prefaces, in which some additions to the existing material will appear. The activity among the booksellers and publishers is, of course, natural and will undoubtedly increase. Of a great and favorite author there can be no more pleasing memorial than an adequate copy of his works. In the case, however, of Dickens, whose pen achieved so much in behalf of oppressed and fallen humanity, a memorial taking the form of some permanent beneficence—some charity that would seek to alleviate the sufferings which ever found a sympathetic and helpful portrayal in his art—would seem to be the most fitting tribute to his genius.—*New York Times*.

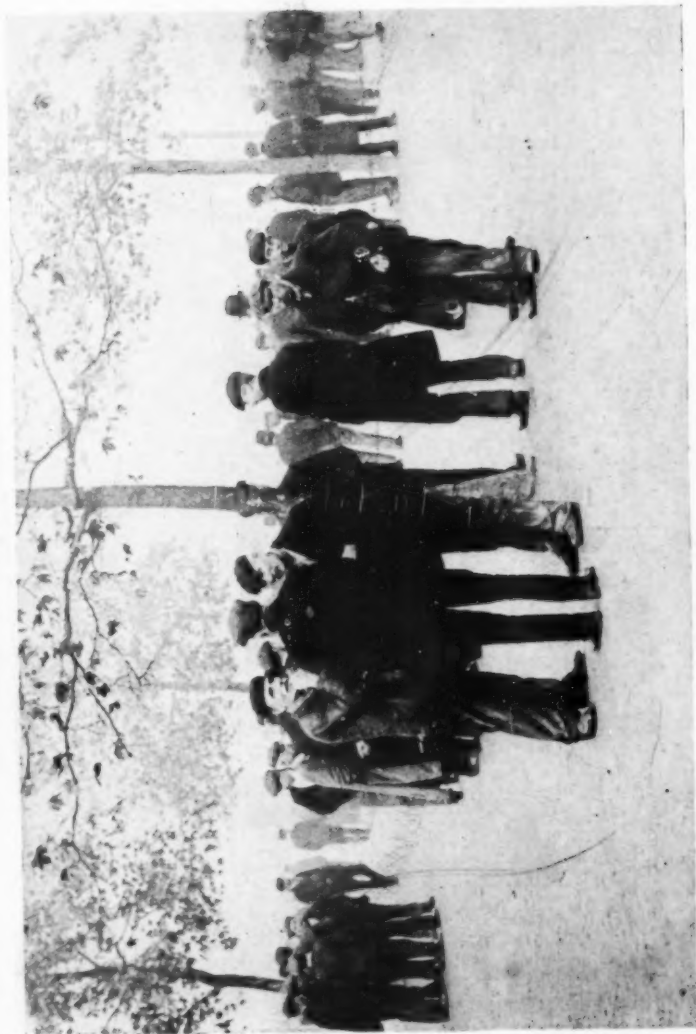
\$110 FOR A BURNS POEM

The following verses, "On the Death of Echo," with the autograph of Robert Burns, realized \$110 at Sotheby's in London recently:

Ye warblers of the vocal grove,
Your heavy loss deplore,
Now half your melody is lost,
Sweet Echo is no more.

Each shrieking,—screaming bird and beast
Exalts your tuneless voice.
Half your deformity is hid;
Here Echo silent lies.

Among the other important items were: A letter of Jonathan Swift, Dublin, March 26, 1772, speaking of the death of Saunders, his servant, \$92.50; a letter of Percy B. Shelley, June 20, 1820, discussing personal, literary, and other affairs, \$215; a letter of Oliver Cromwell, dated October 25, 1646, \$275; a letter of Benjamin Franklin dated March 14, 1764, \$162.50, and a long letter from William M. Thackeray to "Mammy" (his mother), written from Buffalo, N. Y., Dec. 29, 1852, and giving his impression of America, \$175.



Unemployed Waiting about the Thames Embankment for Food Tickets



Unemployed Men Making Recreation Grounds on Hackney Marshes



Men waiting to register at the Commercial Road Labor Exchange in East London



Whole families go from London to work as "Hoppers" in the Hop Gardens of Kent. The number of applicants far exceeds the demand, and Labor Bureaux are proposed to help them obtain work



The Problem of the Unemployed*

By Percy Alden, M. P.

THE problem of the unemployed is the problem of all civilized communities, and just because it is chiefly found in manufacturing countries affected by the "industrial revolution" it seems to point to some radical defect in our social system, a lack of ability to organize and coördinate the wealth-producing power of the country. The unemployed problem is, in fact, only one part of the great social problem that confronts all industrialized communities. In countries that are entirely agricultural, where there is free access to the land, there is little or no unemployment, and it may possibly be the case that a partial solution of the difficulty will be found in a fresh attempt under better and wiser conditions to apply waste labor to what is at present waste land.

A rather striking illustration of this general principle was witnessed after the close of the war between Russia and Japan. The dislocation of industrial and agricultural life in Japan had been enormous; hundreds of thousands of men had been taken away from their daily occupations.

*This is the fourth in the series of articles on Democratic England, the first, "Introduction," having appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN, the second on "The Child and the State," in October, and the third, "The Problem of Sweating," in November.

Large numbers of them had come up from the agricultural districts to serve in the army, large numbers also had been taken out of the towns. At the close of the war an outsider would have prophesied a period of extreme distress for the unemployed, and indeed it must be confessed that the people of Japan suffered for a time at all events great hardships, but the fact that almost every soldier was either in direct contact with the land, or was, through some relative, in touch with agricultural pursuits, made it possible for them to tide over this crisis in their national life. In the future, after Japan has been fully industrialized, it will not be so easy to absorb its disbanded conscripts after the completion of a war.

Take again another illustration, that of a country like Denmark, which, notwithstanding the constant growth of its capital, Copenhagen, is nevertheless in the main, an agricultural country. Outside of Copenhagen there are comparatively few unemployed, access to the land is readily obtainable, and almost every man who is thrifty may secure for himself a small holding upon which it is just possible to live. Of course it is useless to expect a country like England, which, in the main, is industrial, to eliminate in a moment all unemployment, but the line of advance is at all events quite clear. The decrease in the agricultural population and the enormous increase in the town, the fact that our unemployed are almost always found in the big industrial centers, the complete change in the conditions of manufacture, from industries carried on in the homes of the people, often in small villages, to a factory system with all its attendant evils—these things must be regarded as the main causes of the growth of the unemployed problem. Labor saving machinery may have aggravated the evil, although in the end it is possible that the introduction of new methods and more scientific equipment creates more employment than we usually imagine, yet the fact remains that today the demands upon the worker have become greater with a

tendency on the part of commerce to become irregular and discontinuous.

Highly specialized conditions of industry often make it impossible for men employed in that trade to find other occupations in the event of an actual collapse or severe depression. The worker in England, for one reason or another, is not so capable of adapting himself to new conditions as is the worker in the United States. Then again, the strengthening of the Factory Acts, Employers' Liability, Workmen's Compensation, and a variety of other ameliorative measures, necessary as these reforms were, have probably shortened the years of full efficiency in the opinion of the employer. For all these reasons we must expect to find in our big towns a surplus of laborers, fifty per cent. of whom will be unskilled, unable to obtain regular work and gradually tending to become demoralized and degraded by unemployment.

The change that has come over public opinion with regard to the treatment of these men is almost in itself a revolution. The old view, held not only by Tories but by Liberals of the Manchester school, and even by some philosophic Radicals, was that the country for its own interest must have cheap labor, and not only cheap labor but a reserve of labor, if it was to maintain its position in the competitive world. Trade Unions for this reason were looked at askance, and any constructive legislation for dealing with the unemployed was regarded with the utmost suspicion. The Poor Law and charity were the only two methods by which distress arising from unemployment could be relieved. The present view is far more scientific as well as more humane. We aim now not only at relieving distress without the stigma of pauperism, but also at searching out the causes of unemployment, of classifying the men who are unemployed, and substituting a complete organization for the disorder and chaos which have been only too manifest in our methods of dealing with this great problem. We should

probably long ago have undertaken more constructive work, had it not been for the confusion of thought created by the tramp, the wastrel and the vagabond.

In the experience of most of us there are men for whom it seems almost impossible to find a way out. They are either unwilling or unable to work, and the employer regards it as an economically unsound policy to offer them the opportunity since he knows that there are better men awaiting the same job. Whether it be the fault of the individual man or the fault of society, the fact remains the same, that there is a large class of men who cannot be employed in the ordinary ranks of industry, who must be dealt with in some other fashion at the cost of the State with a view of fitting them for future employment. As to these unemployables, all that can be said just now is that public opinion is gradually crystallizing in favor of colonies of detention for the men who are unwilling to work, and free colonies for training those men who are willing but have so deteriorated in physique as to become utterly inefficient. Just as we manufacture criminals and create the unemployable by our stupid and shortsighted methods, so, by a systematic and sustained effort, we may perhaps be able to save a minority of these men from themselves and transform them into useful citizens.

The recent Report of the Poor Law Commission only emphasizes the recommendations of the Departmental Committee on Vagrancy,* and although that committee dealt for the most part with only one section of the unemployable, the direction which new legislation must take was perfectly obvious. There can be no doubt that before long England will sanction some attempt to deal with the unemployables along continental lines, and if the cost is presented as an insuperable obstacle, it is necessary to remember that at present the habitual vagrant and the inefficient are either in-

*C. D. 2852 Wyman & Sons, Fetter Lane, E. C. 1s 6d.

mates of casual wards or prisons, or a burden upon the charity of some private individual.

But it is chiefly with the under-employed and not with the unemployed that we are mostly concerned, although up to the present no adequate remedy has been discovered. Mr. W. H. Beveridge, who is now Director of the Labor Exchange at the Board of Trade, and the little band who signed the Minority Report of the Poor Law Commission, are specially concerned with the problems presented by this very large class of men. The under-employed are recruited for the most part from the ranks of casual labor, but there are many men who have descended from the higher grades and who may be styled the "sediment" of labor, whose work is so irregular that they are constantly unemployed. It is estimated that if the labor which is employed at the docks in East London could be organized so as to give men full and complete work without waste of time, something like 10,000 men would be stood off and rendered permanently idle. In the same way with the Liverpool docks, the decasualization of labor at these docks would probably mean that 5,000 would be wholly unemployed. This is a very serious problem to which the State must now address itself, and the Poor Law Commission has made several suggestions to remedy the evil. Before discussing these suggestions we need to inquire a little more closely into the whole question of "supply" and "demand" so far as the labor market is concerned. What is the cause of this great wastage of force in the industrial world? We have not yet been able to ascertain what it is that lies at the root of the great fluctuations in trade, the periods of boom and the periods of depression, although the cause is probably inherent in the competitive system, but we do know that a considerable amount of dislocation is caused by the maladjustment of supply and demand. In some cases the demand for labor is keeping pace with the general supply, but the supply itself is unequal in different trades. It sometimes happens

that one trade is depressed while another is prosperous, but the mobility of labor is so imperfect that it is not possible to transfer men from one trade to another. For example, men who are out of work in the building trades in London could not supply vacant places in the textile trades of Lancashire. Even in the same trade there may be a leakage of labor power due to lack of organization. What is wanted is some machinery which will enable men who are under-employed or displaced in one industry, to be placed in regular employment elsewhere—some method whereby the mobility of labor may be increased and the wastage reduced to a minimum.

The first step is obviously, the organization, so far as is possible, of the labor market, and with this object in view the Liberal government in 1909 brought in and passed into law the "Labor Exchanges Act"—an Act modeled to some extent upon the system of the German bureaux, but an improvement upon that system by virtue of the fact that in Great Britain these Exchanges are maintained by the State and are therefore all closely linked together, whereas in Germany the bureaux are either municipal or run by voluntary associations. The whole country is mapped out into eleven divisions, Ireland forming one division, and at the head of each is placed a divisional inspector. Each important town is eventually to have an Exchange, and at the present moment there are 101 in existence. These Exchanges are classified in Classes A, B, and C according to the population of the town. In the larger towns there will be, necessarily, branch Exchanges, and in smaller towns there will be established sub-offices in connection with the nearest Exchange. Eventually it is intended that every village postoffice shall keep an employment register. All these Exchanges are to be in telephonic and telegraphic communication with one another, and also with the divisional clearing house. The divisional clearing house is in direct communication with the central clearing house in

London. The difficulties met with at the very outset are such as might have been anticipated. For the first few weeks there was so great a rush to register names that hardly any other work could be done except that of enrolling and classifying the large number of unemployed of all types who presented themselves. Since that date, however, there has been a gradual increase in the number* of situations filled, and already it is evident that the Exchange will play a most useful part in the industrial world.

A valuable clause in the new Act provides "that the regulations of the Exchanges may authorize advances to be made by way of loan, towards meeting the expenses of work-people traveling to places where employment has been found for them through a Labor Exchange." There is also a clause in the Act which confers the power of establishing advisory committees for the purpose of giving advice and assistance in connection with the management of any Exchange. These advisory committees consist half of Trade Union representatives and half of Employers' representatives, and their object is to ensure the neutrality of the Exchange as regards organized labor. The Labor Exchanges are not to be used to the detriment of trade unionism, and preference of employment must not be given to non-union men, nor must the Exchange supply workmen during an industrial lock-out or strike, nor must it fill situations at less than the recognized rate of wages, that is to say, the rate of wages for that class of labor which is current in the district. As in the case of rates of wages so in conditions of labor. The conditions are not to be worse than those obtaining in each particular trade in that district. On the other hand, the main business of the Exchange is to bring employer and employed together, leaving them to do their own bargaining and to make their own

*Between 5,000 and 6,000 per week after eight weeks of working (April, 1910).

terms. Roughly speaking, this is the method adopted in the case of the German bureaux.

Other advisory committees will probably consist of those who are interested in women's work and also those who are specially concerned with boy labor and technical instruction. Schoolmasters will most likely be represented on these committees, and an attempt will be made in connection with the section dealing with boy labor to interest all educational authorities. No one supposes that the Labor Exchange is the solution of the unemployed problem, it is only a step in the right direction. Our knowledge of that problem up to the present is incomplete and disjointed. Gradually the information acquired by means of the Exchanges will be at the disposal both of the State and of the big municipalities. The machinery thus made available for ascertaining accurately the numbers of the unemployed and various classes of men and women applying for work, will be of great value when the effort is made to redistribute and to concentrate work. While unable to create work, except in a very small measure, the Exchanges by the distribution of the work which is already in existence will tend to remove the friction which arises in the industrial machine from lack of knowledge, and generally speaking, to make easy the pathway of the workman in his search for employment. The very fact that the system is a national system, places upon the State, when full statistics are available, the great responsibility of dealing somehow or other with the reserve army of labor which will then be seen to be in existence. Incidentally, it may also enable this or some other government to deal with the questions of the casual laborer and the under-employed.

These Labor Exchanges differ in many essentials from the Labor Bureaux established and maintained out of the rates, which sprang up as a result of the Labor Bureaux (London) Act of 1902. Many of the local authorities did

not take advantage of the Act, and the machinery was altogether inadequate. The Unemployed Workmen's Act, 1905, gave to London a central unemployed body, and under its control some twenty Exchanges were established, but these Exchanges were never a complete success, and allied as they were with an Act that established Distress Committees they were associated in men's minds with all the unfortunate attempts that had been made to deal with unemployment from the point of view of charity. They were handicapped by lack of funds, by an insufficient staff and inadequate accommodation; their failure was inevitable.

We have said that the Labor Exchange is the first step in the solution of the unemployed problem. It is impossible to deal successfully with a question like that of unemployment unless we know the measure of the need and have some method of applying a remedy. Thus, whether we pronounce for a comprehensive form of government insurance against unemployment or whether we urge the desirability of State works and a creation of new industries, or whether we look in both these directions, we must have the assistance of the Exchange in collecting and registering the data and in providing the distributing machinery which will be required.

Sooner or later registration at the Exchange will be made compulsory, and then it will be possible to make provision for insurance against unemployment on a large scale. Two methods have been suggested. The first is that of subsidizing from the national exchequer the existing trade unions which grant unemployment allowances. In many of the larger trade unions a weekly sum is paid during unemployment, traveling allowances are made to those in search of work, and emigration grants are voted in certain cases. The trade unions, on the average, pay something like £500,000 a year to their unemployed members in this form of assistance. The highest figure during the last ten years was £652,471 for one hundred unions, which is an average

of 11 shillings 1 penny per head. State subventions to the unemployed funds of these trade unions would be a great encouragement to them to continue this valuable piece of work, and would offer an inducement to other trade unions not in the possession of similar funds, to make a beginning in the same direction. The proposal is that the Government should contribute an amount equal to that raised by the trade union for this special purpose. The weakness of this method of helping the unemployed is, of course, the fact that the poorer and the more unskilled the union the less likely it is that it would be able to start an unemployed fund, and the more probable it is that such a union would have a large number of out-of-works within its ranks. Its merit is its great simplicity.

As over and against this idea of trade union insurance it was suggested in the House of Commons on May 19, 1909, by Mr. Churchill, that the Government scheme of unemployment insurance should be on somewhat different lines, that it should be compulsory upon both employers and work people in certain trades to contribute to an unemployed fund, their contribution to be supplemented by subventions from the Treasury. Specified trades to be dealt with as an experiment were those in which a large amount of unemployment had been shown to exist—the building, engineering, machine and tool-making trades, ship-building, and also trades connected with vehicles. Such a scheme would deal with something like 2,250,000 adult workers, and if successful would gradually lighten the task of the statesman who had to deal with the remainder of the problem.

The most striking fact about the Poor Law Commission is the general consensus of opinion with regard to remedies of unemployment and the inadequacy of present methods. The Majority and Minority Reports are so essentially different in their main conclusions, that it is some comfort, at all events, to find a fair degree of unanimity with regard to the question before us. The detailed criticisms

to which old-time methods have been subjected, reveal the fact that the Poor Law, with its workhouse, its labor union, its outdoor relief, has utterly failed to help the unemployed. Equally so has charity, in all its varied forms. The doles of charity received from the Mansion House Funds and from various central agencies, have created greater evils than they have remedied. Municipal relief works, in so far as they partake of the nature of charitable agencies, are also a failure, although here some useful results at all events can be placed to the credit of the unemployed. It was in 1886 that Mr. Joseph Chamberlain issued his circular dealing with relief works, and it was the Unemployed Workmen's Act of 1905 that aimed at remedying the evils connected with that method of relieving distress. What were these evils? In the first place, relief works were designed to tide regular workers temporarily out of work, over a period of exceptional trade depression. What really happened was that this class either did not apply or was overlooked, and only the lowest class of unskilled laborers was assisted. Secondly, the casual laborer was rather encouraged than discouraged, and the efficient men who were employed on relief works were hindered from doing good work by the slow pace and the low standard of the inefficients. Then again, the cost was very high, sometimes more than double the estimate, and lastly, the municipalities, finding themselves unable to discover useful work upon which these men might be employed, began to forestall their ordinary work, thereby making it necessary to dispense with their regular staff later on in the year. As the Report said, "The better class of workmen became unemployed for the sole reason that the work had been done at an earlier period by the unemployed at a much greater cost and with less efficiency."

Many of these evils in connection with municipal relief works might be remedied by better organization, classification and discrimination. It is quite unusual to find the

foreman in charge of relief works empowered to dismiss a man at a moment's notice for persistently refusing to do his full share of work. It is also unusual to find that there is any efficient power of selection placed in the hands of those who are controlling the relief works, and the result is that often the most unfit are employed, while those who are able and willing to do this class of work are overlooked. Then again, sufficient inducement is not offered to those engaged on relief work to do their best, and finally, the government had no alternative schemes to offer in the case of those municipalities which found themselves unable to deal with the huge army of unemployed within their own boundaries. If these relief works are to be at all successful, the work to be done should be really useful work, and yet such as would not be carried out under ordinary circumstances. The men selected should be the most capable and industrious, and all work made as remunerative as possible by proper supervision. There is no reason why relief works should be managed more unscientifically and carelessly than other industrial operations. It would be well if some experiment could be made on the lines of the New Zealand Coöperative Gang system. There, the government, working through the various local authorities, employs directly the labor of the unemployed, but each gang works on its own responsibility, accepting a contract to accomplish a specific amount of labor for a fixed sum. Each gang elects its own foreman, and each individual man benefits if the work is carried out economically and quickly. The result is a fairly high standard.

The Poor Law Commission Reports are agreed as to the general principles upon which a new departure must be made. In the first place, the causes which have led to unemployment or to under-employment must be discovered. Proper classification of the unemployed must be observed, and the unemployable must be dealt with in an entirely different fashion. With a view to draining what has been

called "the stagnant pool" of casual labor they were unanimous in their recommendation of the Labor Exchange as a first step because it would increase the mobility of labor and offer a reliable index of the labor market. Germany's 700 Exchanges fill 2,000,000 situations a year at the cost of something like seven pence apiece. Why should it not be possible for England to accomplish a similar work?

Both Reports are agreed that boy labor has an important bearing upon the enormous amount of under-employment to be found in our big cities. Our casual laborers are chiefly young men, and in most cases are boys who were placed in "blind alley" occupations. Their parents never gave any serious consideration to their future. They left school at a very early age without physical training and without technical instruction. The result is, at the age of twenty or twenty-one, these young men find all doors leading to a regular occupation closed, and only intermittent labor of a very low character is possible to them. The Poor Law Commission, therefore, advocates the raising of the school age, the teaching of a skilled trade, school supervision until sixteen years of age, and improved facilities for technical education between the present age of leaving school and the age of eighteen or twenty. We might add that some sort of training in the duties of citizenship is necessary if these youths are to grow up to be a help and not a hindrance to the State. As to the draining of the "stagnant pool" that has been referred to, the suggestion is made that it might be possible to decasualize much of this labor. If registration at Labor Exchanges were compulsory, and if employers were compelled to engage their casual labor from the Exchange, in this way different occupations might be dovetailed and a sufficient number of hours given to each casual laborer in connection with various employments. In the case of "season" trades, this dove-tailing of different industries would be of great value; for example, during the three winter months, when the building and brick-making trades

are at their slackest, the men who are thus employed could be engaged in other industries that are possibly working at high pressure and in this way much of the evil due to seasonal variation might be overcome. In the case of the large number of men who are unable to find work, even after the above suggestions have been carried out, the Minority Report put forward as a remedy a proposal made by Mr. A. L. Bowley, the statistician, namely, that "a ten-years' program" of capital grants-in-aid, as a standing scheme of governmental and local outlay on needed work, should be set on foot. The idea is that a large sum of money, £4,000,000, should be set aside by the Government year by year, to be used in times of trade depression, for the carrying out of certain big governmental works. These works would be let by contract in the usual way, and would thus counteract the industrial ebb and flow of demand by inducing a complementary flow and ebb. By this method it is thought that the disadvantages attached to ordinary relief works would be overcome.

What are these large governmental works which might be established apart from the operations of the War Office and Admiralty? Land reclamation has been suggested, and there is much waste land which would give a fair profit if properly drained and cultivated. The improvement of our harbors and the protection of our coast against erosion by the sea, is another suggestion which has been made. But the most practical scheme yet to be put forward is the outcome of at least two important Committees on Forestry. It is thought that the 10,000,000 acres of waste land in Great Britain, which are more or less suitable for afforestation purposes, might gradually be acquired and afforested at the expense of the community. No private owner of land can venture on the work of afforestation on a large scale, partly because the profits are small, and partly because he would have to wait too long for a return on money. The State can borrow money cheaply; the State can afford to wait, and

therefore, schemes of afforestation, if carried out economically by contract labor, might not only in the end prove to be of great value to the community, but would certainly absorb a considerable number of unemployed, some of whom after training might be permanently established in this industry. Professor Schlich has pointed out that we spend £25,000,000 annually on timber, a considerable portion of which might be grown on British soil without using one acre of already cultivated land. If the new Development Act, as it is intended, enables us to make a start, amongst other things, with this work of afforestation, it will have proved itself to be not the least useful of the measures passed by the Liberal government.

Finally, a few words are desirable on Labor Colonies and the land question generally, in view of the close relation between land and unemployment. The oldest known colony is that founded in 1818 by General Van Den Bosch, at Fredericksoord in Friesland, Holland. There are two other colonies of very much the same type, Willemsoord and Wilhelminasoord. In all there are 10,000 acres of what was once heath and sand, now under full cultivation by town-bred men. The founder of the colony took as his motto: "Help the people and improve the land." Fredericksoord, which is the best known of the three, has a population of 1,900, and in connection with the colony there is a system of free farms or small holdings, upon which men are placed as soon as they have proved themselves capable agriculturalists. The nearest approach to this colony in England is that at Hollesley Bay near Woodbridge in Suffolk, which consists of an estate of 1,300 acres, about 500 of which are arable land. This colony is maintained out of the unemployed central fund controlled by the President of the Local Government Board. This fund amounts to some £200,000 a year.

England has other colonies under voluntary management, for example, Hadley, belonging to the Salvation

Army; Lingfield, belonging to the Christian Social Service League, and Libury Hall at Great Munden, Herts, which is a colony run by Germans in England on the lines of the thirty-two agricultural colonies in Germany itself. The mistake which has been made in every country so far as labor colonies are concerned, is that of not drawing a hard and fast line between colonies for the inefficient and colonies for the genuine unemployed. It is only in recent years that any attempt has been made to classify the men who have been sent to these colonies. The result is that the vagrant and the wastrel, the criminal and the epileptic, are found side by side with the industrious and capable working man who for one reason or another has been out of work for a long period. We must make up our minds what class we are trying to reach and to assist, and there can be no doubt that what is really required is a series of graded colonies dealing with various classes from the unemployable up to the better class of unemployed, namely, the type of man who can be taught agriculture on a training farm, and who, if taught and properly assisted, may become a successful small holder. Until the labor colonies are adapted specifically to deal with these classes that are at present all sent in a body to the same colony, we cannot entertain any hope of their success. It seems, however, that in the near future this classification will be accomplished, and then we may expect to find, not only colonies of detention for the vagrant, but also agricultural training farms for the type of laborer who was once upon the land but now finds himself unemployed in our large towns. How are these and similar men to be finally established in the country? The serious obstacle to any solution of the unemployed problem, complicated as it is by the rush of agricultural laborers to the town, is the land monopoly. That question we propose to deal with at a later stage. It is sufficient for our purpose to say that unless the evil of land monopoly can be reduced in extent, all hope of really solving the unemployed prob-

lem is at an end. While it is possible for fourteen Peers in the House of Lords to own nearly 5,000,000 acres of land over which they have full control, in a country like Great Britain where land hunger is so severely felt, it is idle either to talk of getting back to the land or giving independence in the rural districts to the laborers who are already there. To sum up the change which must be made and the recommendations which ought to be carried out by any British government, intending to tackle the problem of unemployment, we venture to predict that the first and possibly the most important step will be to place in the hands of one Minister responsibility for the whole question. At the present moment, the Local Government Board, the Board of Trade, the Board of Agriculture, and to some extent the Board of Education, are all responsible for some aspect of the problem.

The Local Government Board has charge of the central employed fund of £200,000, administers the Unemployed Workmen's Act of 1905, and controls the distress committees which have been set up as a result of that Act. It also indirectly controls the farm colonies in connection with certain distress committees, for example, Hollesley Bay, and the West Ham Colony, by virtue of the fact that the greater portion of the maintenance fund is contributed by the Board. The Board of Trade, on the other hand, is responsible for the newly created Labor Exchanges and also for the measure dealing with Insurance against Unemployment, which is shortly to be introduced. To the Board of Trade may also fall the task of devising an Invalidity Pension Scheme. The special work of the Board of Agriculture, so far as it bears on unemployment, takes the shape of placing Crown lands at the disposal of the government for small holdings and for afforestation purposes. It has been suggested that the Board of Agriculture should systematically encourage the settlement of small holdings near

the labor colonies of men who have been trained and assisted in those colonies.

It will be seen that some unification or coördination of the work carried on by these three departments is necessary, and if the question of casual labor is to be thoroughly dealt with, it will be necessary that the Board of Education should be in close touch, with a view to raising the school age and providing such technical or trade instruction as will safeguard the interests of the boys who enter upon "blind-alley" occupations. The duty of organizing the national labor market ought, however, in our opinion, to be placed upon the shoulders of one minister and his department should include the Labor Exchanges, the work of insurance, emigration, and the control of a graded system of labor farm colonies, whereby those who are unable to get occupation in the ordinary channels of industry, may be maintained and trained with a view either to emigration or to agricultural pursuits in Great Britain, or to special government works such as afforestation and land reclamation. It is upon some such lines that the Liberal government hopes to proceed. The growth of public opinion in favor of such action has been astonishing, and the time has now arrived when it will be possible to deal in a thorough and statesman-like fashion with this perplexing and complicated problem.





ENGLISH CATHEDRALS

Salisbury*

By Kate Fisher Kimball

IT is a sunny day in an English autumn. You are in Wiltshire climbing the long, gentle slope from Amesbury to Stonehenge in pursuit of the mysterious stone circle of Salisbury Plain. Higher and higher rises the white road, till at the final crest of the hill the whole wonderful scene stretches out before you; not a flat, desolate plain as you had imagined, but a vast rolling prairie, dropping gently into a valley, then rising with a superb sweep up the slopes of the encircling hills. The trees have withdrawn to the horizon. The long, tawny grass ripples in the soft breeze. As you follow the road which stretches away like a white band down into the hollow and up again, absolute silence reigns. Not a living creature is in sight. Not a bird note is sounded. Just ahead of you silhouetted against the sky stand the huge stones, old gray monarchs that "have kept watch o'er man's mortality," still holding their places erect, preserving their ancient Circle, though many of their comrades have fallen prostrate. Oddly enough, only a stone's throw away a belated airship has dropped down for anchorage! What a strange juxtaposition, the stone age and the air age confronting each other after unnumbered centuries. No wonder the unknown

*This is the fourth article in the series on "English Cathedrals." "Canterbury" appeared in the September issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Ely" in October, and "Westminster Abbey" in November.

builders of the stone age selected such a spot for their rites of worship or of burial, with the stillness and the sense of infinity all about them.

"What though in solemn silence all
Move round this dark terrestrial ball."

Did some memory of the deep silences of Stonehenge linger with Addison when he wrote these lines? For some of his schoolboy days were passed in Amesbury and he must have been familiar with a spot whose mystery would appeal to a sensitive nature.

As you turn back and again cross the distant hilltop the tip of Salisbury's Cathedral spire suddenly comes into view peering over the far off horizon like a watchful monitor. For nearly six centuries the spire, insistently pointing upward, has silently noted the passing of events. Armies have marched to and fro over the neighboring downs. Early Parliaments twice found their way to Salisbury. Royalist and Roundhead alternately held the city during the civil wars and the Prince of Orange entered it triumphantly in 1688.

But at "Old Sarum" the Cathedral had a unique record of still greater antiquity far antedating that of its present building, and it is with due reverence that you linger on the way back to Salisbury to explore the huge deserted mound once an ancient citadel, *Sorbiodunum* of the Roman, *Searobrig*, "the dry city," of the Saxon, *Saris-berie* of the Domesday Survey, and now merely an earthly paradise for the archaeologist. Excavations have already brought to light the apartments of a Norman castle below which undoubtedly lie Roman remains and beneath these probably traces of previous residents, for the site is a commanding one and the immense outer earthworks point to pre-Roman times. Below the Castle itself but within the deep outer moat and the encircling barrier lay the ancient city with its Norman cathedral. The church still awaits the spade of the excavator, but in the exceptionally dry

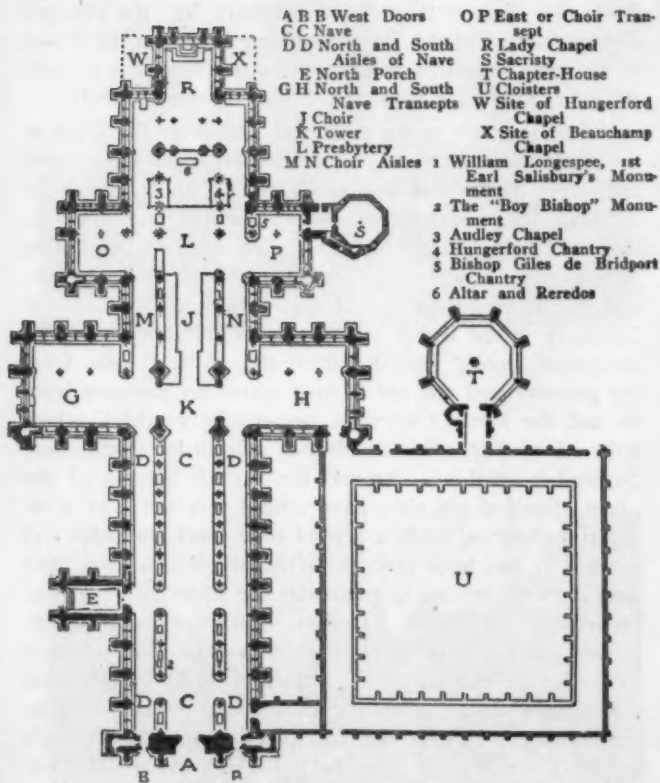
summer of 1835 its foundations showed plainly through the turf revealing a cruciform plan and an entire length of some two hundred and seventy feet. In early Saxon times Old Sarum belonged to the diocese of Sherborne whose first bishop in 705 was Aldhelm afterward canonized. Various dividings and reunitions of the see resulted in placing the seat of the Bishop at Old Sarum in 1075 under Bishop Herman, a Fleming, who came over with Edward the Confessor and hence was not dispossessed by the Conqueror. His successor, the Norman Osmund, built the church whose foundations can still be seen, though five days after its consecration in 1092, it was so damaged by lightning that considerable restoration was necessary ten years later under Bishop Roger. But Osmund's orderly mind was of greater service to his bishopric than even his achievements in cathedral building. Noting the great variety of forms in the ritual used at churches in England and on the continent he arranged the material so admirably that his "Sarum Use" was widely adopted by the English churches. Although not canonized till four hundred years after his death, his saintly qualities and reputed miracles made his tomb a favorite shrine. Rather militant than saintly is the record left by Bishop Roger, though he restored the damaged cathedral, and for his skillful additions to Sherborne Minster was reputed "the great architectural genius of the 13th Century." As Chancellor of Henry I his abilities were conspicuous but his numerous castles excited suspicion and jealousy of his power, and in the anarchy of Stephen's time he was thrown into prison by the King and despoiled of his fortresses. Jocelin de Bohun who helped to frame the Constitutions of Clarendon and was therefore excommunicated by Archbishop Becket, adds another name to the stormy annals of Old Sarum's bishops.

With Bishop Richard Poore, 1217, we come to the parting of the ways. The restricted citadel secure from

enemies without had developed foes within. A state of incompatibility between the churchly and the military portions of the community led to frequent disputes, sometimes bordering upon open warfare. Town sided with gown against the "castle" and the Dean and Chapter proposed to shake the dust of Old Sarum off their feet. Hence an effective list of grievances was sent to Pope Honorius III. The church being within the line of defence, the lives of the Canons were often endangered. The winds blustering about the elevated spot prevented the singers from hearing each other and also induced rheumatism. Wind and storm kept the church in constant need of repair, while the glare of the chalky soil without trees or grass had caused many to lose their sight. Water was scarce and the price for it prohibitive, and finally the clergy had to rent houses from the soldiers or if they lived outside were liable to be excluded on important occasions on the ground that the defences would be endangered!

With the "translation" of the cathedral the glory of Old Sarum departed. The people followed the church. The castle became useless after the invention of artillery and in 1535 a visitor wrote of it: "This thing hath been ancient and exceeding strong, but syns the building of New Saresbyri it went totally to ruine." Yet the ghost of Old Sarum was not so easily laid. For three hundred years more it was "represented" by two seats in Parliament till it was finally exorcised by the Reform Bill of 1832.

The site of the new cathedral, dedicated to St. Mary, was determined, some say, by a vision of the Virgin which appeared to Bishop Poore.—Others credit it to an arrow shot from the walls of Old Sarum, but whatever the inspiration, the actual ground was furnished by the Bishop himself. No complaints of a "dry city" ever arose from New Salisbury. Tradition acknowledges that the site of the Cathedral was in early days little better than a swamp and the daily service was actually interrupted at one time by



Plan of Salisbury Cathedral

the water in the building. Bishop Douglas in 1791, evidently disturbed by the moisture of his new abode remarked with some feeling, "Salisbury is the sink of Wiltshire Plain, the Close is the sink of Salisbury, and the Bishop's Palace the sink of the Close." Running brooks in the streets of the town suggested comparisons with Venice but in modern times they have been trained into suitable channels.

Still in quest of the cathedral, you enter the Close at Salisbury through one of its three medieval gateways. Amid the stones of the wall you easily distinguish fragments of Norman decoration, for by royal consent Old Sarum was despoiled to help build the walls and gates of this "New Jerusalem." The freedom and quiet which Bishop Poore and his harried flock sought for, they found at last, for Salisbury in the charm and beauty of its surroundings is unrivalled among English cathedrals. A few steps from the gateway and you are looking across an immense lawn toward the lovely Cathedral, perpetually youthful, which with its soaring spire stands out gloriously in the clear September sunshine. Around the far off borders of the green, dignified old elms have ranged themselves at a respectful distance, while a few of their giant comrades and a cedar or two have ventured across the broad lawn, their long shadows serving to emphasize the impression of space and repose. Behind the Cathedral in its sunny southern exposure, are the beautiful cloisters, never however the abode of monks, for Salisbury was a church of the Old Foundation and always served by secular clergy. Adjoining the cloisters is the Chapter house and just beyond, the Bishop's palace, a fairy land secluded behind a high stone wall. Nor is the green itself without its appropriate setting. Back of its guardian elms, enchanting old houses dwell in embowered gardens. A scarlet Virginia creeper climbs riotously over a Queen Anne roof to the chimney tops, or festoons itself decorously along the front of a stately Georgian house while dark English ivy gives an added



Stonehenge



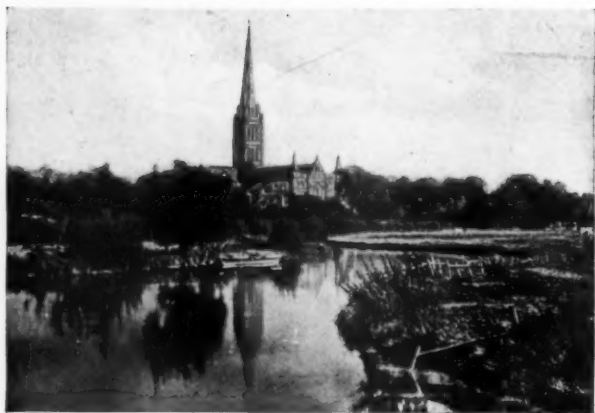
"King's House," Salisbury. Richard III. once stayed here



Salisbury Cathedral, north side



Salisbury Cathedral from the west



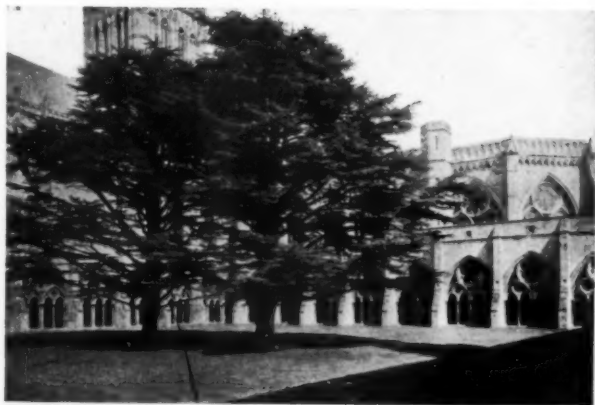
Salisbury Cathedral from the Meadows



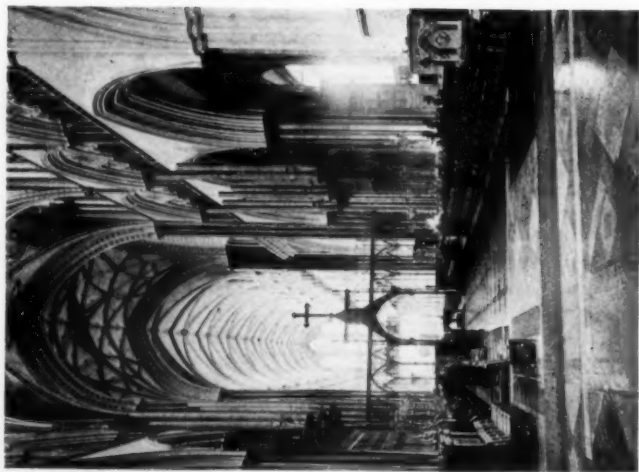
Bishop's Palace, Salisbury



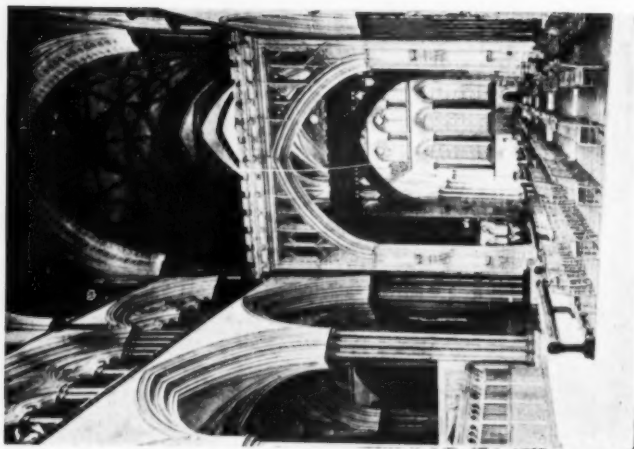
Lady Chapel, Salisbury Cathedral



Cloisters, Salisbury Cathedral



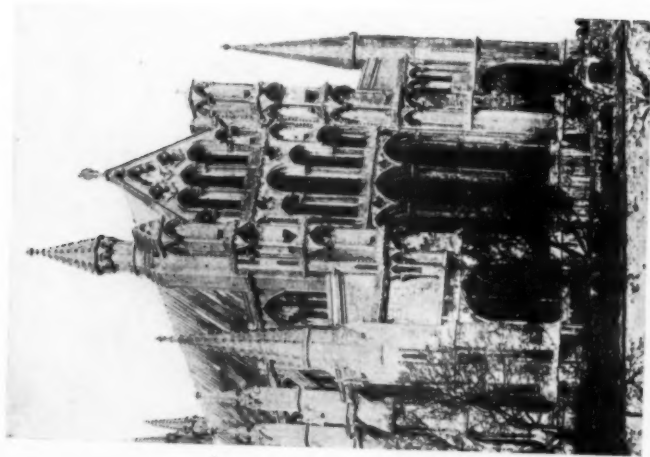
Choir, looking west, Salisbury Cathedral



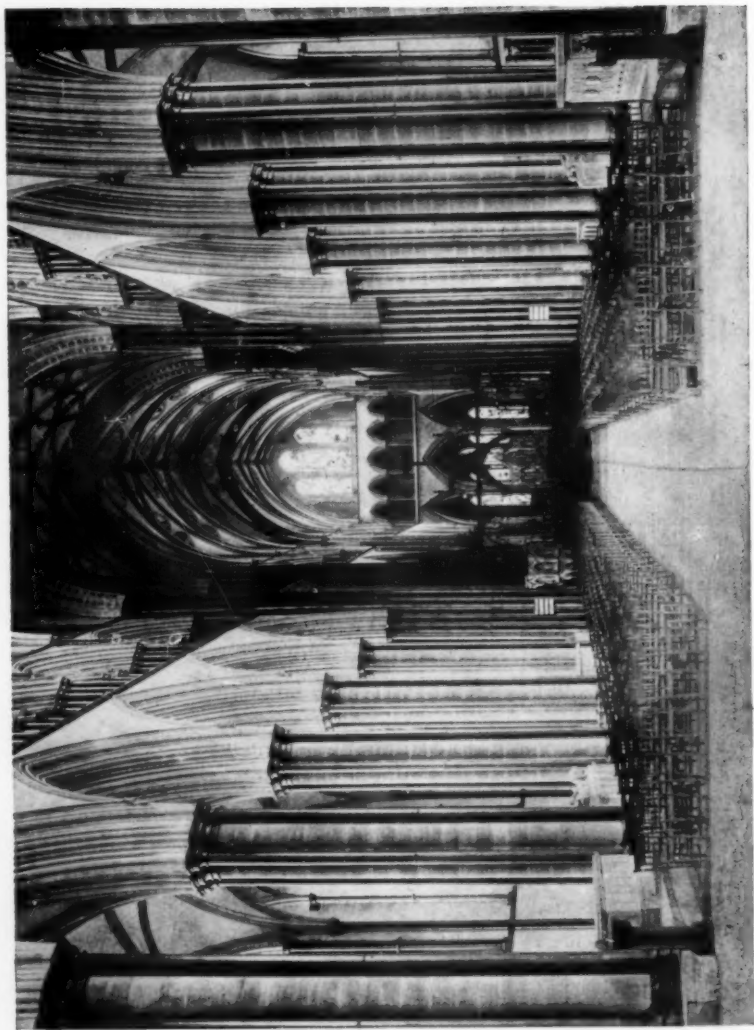
Transepts, Salisbury Cathedral



West Front, Salisbury Cathedral



West Front, Ely Cathedral



Nave, Salisbury Cathedral

flavor of age to surviving Medieval or Tudor buildings, and behind them all runs the sparkling Avon, its clear waters at many points reflecting the cathedral's spire.

Especially appropriate to Salisbury Cathedral is this peculiarly English environment for, built in all essentials in one period, it stands alone among English cathedrals for unity of design, expressing the Gothic spirit as it was first making its way in England. Nor was it reared on any previous structure but grew from virgin soil in its own characteristic way. Your eye follows with delight the graceful lines of chapel and aisle and transept as they rise one above the other till their growing sense of aspiration is completed in the marvelous spire four hundred feet in height which gathers all the lines into itself and transmits them skyward.

Very exact and self-restrained were these early Gothic builders. Their symmetrical cutting and placing of the stones is the wonder of architects. They were sparing of decoration also, apparently relying upon the contrast between their deep cut horizontal moldings and the upward reach of the beautiful lancet windows skilfully grouped in threes and fives on each bold front or towering gable. But, any possible severity of effect was finally dispelled by the treatment of the cornice embellished with a row of trefoiled arches with corbels beneath them extending around the entire building. At each projecting corner rises an airy pinnacle seeming to suggest the higher service of the great spire. One can scarcely imagine the cathedral without its spire which is surely, as we see it before us, a logical necessity. Yet it seems certain that the original architect did not contemplate it nor is the exact date of its erection known;* though doubtless within fifty years. It is evi-

*In 1762 when a new copper vane was added a wooden box was discovered and within it a round leaden one $5\frac{1}{2}$ by $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches containing a piece of fabric supposed to be a relic of the Virgin placed there to protect the tower from lightning. It was replaced in its original position.

dent, however, from the extensive buttressing on the inside of the Cathedral that before the spire was built the tower showed signs of weakening. Yet an artistic genius arose, more artist perhaps than engineer, who saw his opportunity and dared even then to give to the Cathedral its final touch of distinction. Today the spire is twenty-three inches out of the perpendicular, but the settlement took place soon after its erection. It has been strengthened by iron bands in late years and recent tests reveal no further indication of weakness. Though its architecture shows the influence of a slightly later period the architect so skilfully adapted his design that it harmoniously completes the earlier beginnings. You notice especially how the clustering pinnacles produce such an impression of continuity between tower and spire that one naturally grows out of the other, a supreme artistic achievement.

The west front has been severely criticized. A great work of art must be true throughout and Salisbury's west front is in a measure a screen not closely related to the building behind it. Compare this front with the Early English east end of Ely. Even in its mutilated state, for you remember that its lower corners were altered at a later time, you feel its strength and beauty. Notice how the divisions of clerestory, triforium and aisle are carried over into the plan of the facade, giving a sense of completeness to the whole structure. Here in Salisbury the connection is almost entirely lost. Nevertheless you may enjoy the beauty of many of the details while you study the proportions of doors and windows and consider whether their relation to each other and to the whole gives the best possible effect, and educate your taste by comparisons with other churches as your artistic experience widens.

But we must not forget what this west front meant to the people of the 13th Century who lavished their gifts upon the Cathedral and found it in those troubled times not only a refuge and strength but a great religious teacher.

In an age when there were no books, when Chaucer and Wickliff were yet unborn and the printing press was two hundred years distant, the church wisely used the best possible means for perpetuating the influence of the heroes of the faith. We can imagine one of those far distant Sabbaths when the people pouring out of the Cathedral, which still echoed to the strains of the *Te Deum*, would linger to look up at the glorious company of the apostles, the goodly fellowship of the prophets and the noble army of martyrs carved in stone.

But we must leave this much discussed front, on which the frequent use of the ball flower ornament indicates the coming Decorated stage of Gothic Architecture, and enter the Cathedral by the north door, whose beautiful entrance porch merits attention. Sharp contrasts greet you in Salisbury's nave. The lack of stained glass windows emphasizes the pallor of the stone which is further heightened by the profusion of very dark highly polished Purbeck marble shafts, giving to the church as a whole a black and white effect. Yet as you walk slowly down to the historic east end, you find yourself gradually being won by the simple dignity of the building and the harmony of all its parts. At the extreme east beneath the Lady Chapel Bishop Poore in 1220 laid the first five stones of the foundation "amidst the acclamations of multitudes of the people weeping for joy and contributing thereto their alms with a ready mind." His successors finished the building for the Bishop was translated to Durham and died before Salisbury was completed. In 1258 the Cathedral was consecrated, Henry III and his Queen being in attendance. Consecration crosses of beautiful design may still be seen on the outside of the building. The King was at this time rebuilding the eastern end of Westminster Abbey in the new Early English style and it would be interesting to know if in any way the two buildings influenced each other. Westminster is richer in its carving than Salisbury,

much higher also and narrower, its darker stone work giving it a touch of mystery. Salisbury is frank and open, its form, that of a double cross, easily perceived. Its square east end is distinctly English and quite unlike Westminster and Canterbury both of which felt the French influence. The very delicate shafts supporting the roof of the Lady Chapel are a noticeable feature and close by, the plain tomb of Osmund is a relic of pre-Reformation days and the once glorious shrine of Salisbury's most venerated saint.

As you stand in the center of the choir you see how the security of the spire has been achieved. Behind the triforium arches, at all four angles of the tower, are flying buttresses of stone, and directly above you where the eastern transept crosses the Choir you see the immense inverted arches put in after the buttresses to resist the strain on the transept. Just below the Choir where the greater transept crosses, are two more braces, put in a hundred years later, their panelling characteristic of the Perpendicular period and recalling those at Canterbury. The elaborate carving of the great central arches beneath the tower seems out of keeping but you find it was an innovation of the 15th Century. Another interesting point to be observed is the way in which these Early English architects carried the vaulting of the roof, the main shafts resting not upon the ground but upon brackets between the arches of the triforium. You have seen a similar method of construction in the Presbytery at Ely, but at Westminster the shafts run clear to the ground, as in French churches.

The Civil Wars touched Salisbury but lightly. The Reformation laid its hand on shrines and images, but the Cathedral's greatest humiliation came at the hands of a "restorer" in the decadent days of the late 18th Century, an architect Wyatt known as "the destroyer." Much of the old stained glass was cast out under his administration,

but you can still see an interesting window of geometric glass in the southeastern transept and some fragments set into the great window of the nave, which were rescued fifty years ago. Wyatt also removed the old tombs from their historic places at the east end and arranged them in "orderly" fashion on the plinth which runs beneath the columns of the nave, a striking architectural feature, by the way, due probably to the need of making the foundations more stable. As a final indignity to the outraged building he "cleaned" the ceiling, thereby obliterating the ancient decorations. In modern times sympathetic attempts at restorations of the old designs have given Salisbury a touch of color once more, but the flavor of antiquity is lost forever.

Beneath the floor of the Choir are the tombs of the Earls of Pembroke and here was laid to rest the beautiful Countess of Pembroke whose death called forth Ben Jonson's famous lament.

"Sydney's Sister, Pembroke's Mother
Death, ere thou hast killed another
Faire, and learn'd and good as she,
Tyme shall throw a dart at thee."

Since Henry the Eighth's time, the Pembroke estate, Wilton House, has been a favorite resort of royalty. Through the carefully trimmed trees of the Park, there is always visible a glimpse of Salisbury's spire three miles distant. Nor must you leave the Cathedral without a view from the lovely meadows where Constable painted it again and again. In one immortal picture a rainbow is seen just above the spire. Scarcely a mile away at Bemerton are the church and rectory where George Herbert spent the last years of his short life. Frequently visiting the Cathedral, his favorite walk must have been along the winding waterways. Perhaps some vision of spire and fleecy cloud reflected side by side in the quiet river may have been the happy inspiration of his poem,

"Sweet day so cool so calm so bright
The bridal of the earth and sky."

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Salisbury, Gleason White (Bell's Cathedral Series)—60c net per vol. This is the best single guide for Salisbury. *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*, Thomas Hardy—\$1.50. Stonehenge is made the setting for a part of the tragedy with which the book closes. Other valuable books previously mentioned are: Murray's *Handbook to English Cathedrals*—\$39.40. Van Rensselaer's *Handbook of English Cathedrals*—\$6.00. Ditchfield's *Illustrated Guide to the Cathedrals of Great Britain*—\$2.00. Moore's *Development and Characteristics of Gothic Architecture*—\$4.50. Parker's *A B C of Gothic Architecture and Concise Glossary of Architecture*—\$1.25. The Penny Guides. In ordering add eight per cent postage on net books.





London of Pepys and Addison*

By Percy Holmes Boynton

IN 1666 London was in the condition of an athlete just after a long and exhausting struggle. The first moments following the ordeal reveal him as a primitive animal—a somewhat repulsive spectacle. He can do nothing, say nothing, until heart beat and respiration have come down to normal. So in this long suffering community could be seen traces of subsiding passion, while the physical city, twice struck down by acts of God, was beginning its stark and tremulous recovery from the Fire and the Plague.

In these very years when Milton was living in neglected obscurity. Samuel Pepys, most famous of diarists, was at the outset of an adroit career of self-adjustment which led to prosperity in social life and statecraft. He was a young gentleman of direct ambitions and many useful friends. When there was no other help for it he resigned himself to the divinity that shapes our ends, but for the most part he was busied in shaping his own for himself, and not at all disposed to be content with rough-hewing them. In consequence he was a sort of social barometer, worth ob-

*The first article of this series, "Chaucer's London," appeared in the September CHAUTAUQUAN; the second, Shakespeare's London," in the October issue; the third, "Milton's London," in the November number.

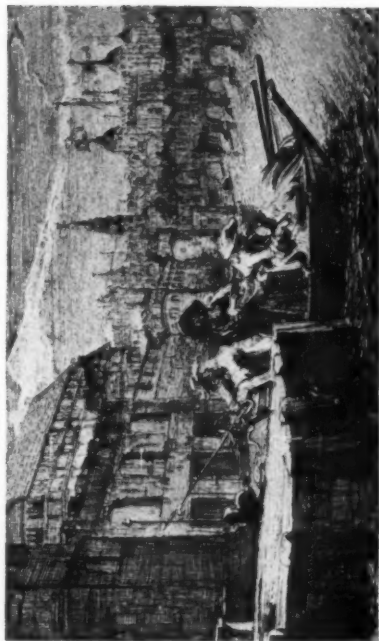
serving for that fact alone, as well as for the real individual gift which made him the author of what is perhaps the most valuable single record of early Restoration days.

In a perfectly conventional way Pepys's London regarded itself as the most charming spot in the most superior land on earth. The country must exist, but only as a barbarous surrounding territory that performed the useful function of occupying space. One might go to it for a day, and on returning patronizingly quote Beaumont and Fletcher "What sweet living 'tis in the country," or "Poor souls, God help 'em, they live as contentedly as one of us." Or students might retire from town for years, spending their lives in the libraries and lecture rooms of the great universities. But to the arrogant Londoner there was no learning to match the lessons of city-life, and no comfort or pleasure to equal what the crowded town could give. "I have vowed," says one of Thomas Shadwell's characters, "to spend all my life in London. People do really live nowhere else. They breathe and move, and have a kind of insipid dull being, but there is no life but in London. I had rather be Countess of Puddledock, than Queen of Sussex."

To what Macaulay was in the habit of calling the "common observer," this ideal town of Shadwell's was a court-ridden London. While Parliament and the judges were proceeding with their grim work of revenge, Charles was surrounded by a group who troubled themselves little about legislative and judicial affairs. The sordid vice of the day is an unedifying subject. Hamilton* enjoyed it, Pepys was half shocked by it, and Taine, among modern historians, exults in the fact that thereby England is shown to be brutally inferior to France. Of the three, Pepys, the rising young office seeker, is doubtless, in his unconsciousness of posterity, much the best witness. Profligacy aside, what else is of interest?

Perhaps nothing is more striking in comparison to the

*Author of the famous *Memoirs of Count Grammont*.



The Flight of James II. From an Engraving by Romeyn de Hooghe



Samuel Butler. Bodleian Picture Gallery,
Oxford



John Bunyan. From the Painting by
Thomas Sadler



William Congreve, by Sir G.
Kneller



John Dryden. From the Kit-
cat Collection



Joseph Addison, by Sir G. Kneller



Sir Richard Steele, by Sir G. Kneller

present than a pervasive and characteristic crudity. This appears, for instance, in the still almost primitive condition of the machinery of living. A smooth white plastered wall in the state that the paper-hanger finds it seemed a triumph of ingenious skill to the diarist. A carriage with laminated springs was as impressive to him as a "safety" bicycle with pneumatic tires to riders of the old high wheels of the late '80's. Benjamin Franklin's homely and sensible attention to the problems of street paving, draining and lighting was not to be applied for two full generations yet.

Again, it was a kind of crudity which led to the over-elaborateness of dress that prevailed in Charles's court. Pepys, early catching the infection, bought his first velvet suit when his money matters were in such shape that he was moved to pray God that he might be able to pay for it. His petition met with such a response that he continued in successive extravagances for which providence and his own enterprise combined to foot the bills. Charles, however, embarrassed by the ruling lavishness of the day, was for reforming it altogether by adopting a set and simple costume: "A long cassock, close to the body, of black cloth, and pinked with white silk under it, and a coat over it, and the legs ruffled with black rib and like a pigeon's leg . . . a very fine and handsome garment." And the fashion stood—until the King of France by way of a left handed compliment, adopted it for his footmen!

It was a crude age in point of food and drink, people consuming incredible quantities. Pepys was frequently fuddled, and not seldom witness or aid in the case of a friend who needed to be helped home, or carried to bed from his own dining room. A lady who drank a pint and a half of canary almost at a draught excited no great comment. The amount of meat and game eaten was quite in proportion; the service not so impressive as the quantity. Pepys exclaimed at "my Lord Barkshire waiting at table, and serving the King drink, in that dirty pickle as I never saw man in my

4

life;" and Grammont listened as the King called attention to the fact he was served kneeling in sign of especial respect, only to reply, "I thank your Majesty for the explanation. I thought they were begging pardon for giving you so bad a dinner."

The age was crude, too, in the unrefinement of its manners. The singing at divine service was once so bad that the King laughed aloud, and the sermons often so dull that the courtiers amused themselves in open and arrant flirtations. Pepys was one time annoyed at the theater because his coat was soiled by a lady in front of him who spat over her shoulder, but he was consoled on seeing that she was pretty. Pleasure in the company of attractive women was very likely to lead him into a genial romp with them. They were so lovely he wanted to muss them up; and he did it, apparently to their delight.

Naturally among men the prevailing roughness of demeanor led—in the conduct of the brutal element which nowadays is held under control, sometimes by the dictates of respectability and sometimes by the fear of law—to acts of amazing violence. In almost every man or woman there exist some faint survivals of the primitive passion for smashing. It is quite evident in children of the cheap-toy age. For the benefit of adults, though it is usually repressed, it is sometimes dignified and institutionalized as in the case of Hallowe'en, or the American baggage handler. The invention of glass has been blessedly useful in offering opportunities for smashing to every level of society from the stratum of beveled mirrors and table ornaments down to the riff-raff who feed on the destruction of shop windows and street lamps. But the practices of seventeenth century England serve to expose and emphasize the miserable limitations of the present. The followers of Cromwell had been sating this appetite when they justified Samuel Butler in calling them,

"Such as do build their faith upon
The holy text of pike and gun,
Decide all controversy by
Infallible artillery;
And prove their doctrine orthodox
By apostolic blows and knocks;
Call fire and sword and desolation
A godly, thorough reformation."

Of course the Restoration roisterers were not to be outdone by such Puritans. They could confidently match the destruction of ecclesiastical carvings, statuary and windows, by the wantonness with which they made the streets at night as dangerous as any brigand-harried pass. It was their time and place to avenge injury or insult as well as to seek after casual adventure, and the court followers were so far committed to this sort of conduct that the slight murmur of disapproval which followed a notable outrage, was drowned in the chorus of derision which hailed the victim. When Dryden, on his way home from Will's coffee house on an evening in 1679, was beaten by ruffians, the disgrace fell on the poet rather than on the Earl of Rochester who was supposed to have instigated the attack. Perhaps posterity has exaggerated the wanton violence of the young bucks of these days. Sir Walter Besant says so, even while he quotes from Gay's *Trivia*:

"Who has not trembled at the Mohock's name?
Was there a watchman took his hourly rounds,
Safe from their blows or new invented wounds?
I pass their desperate deeds and mischief's done,
Where from Snow-hill black steepy torrents run;
How matrons, hoop'd within the hogshead's womb
Were tumbled furious thence."

It should not for a moment be assumed that the basic qualities of a London with these surface manners were different from those of Puritan days. The real distinction between one generation and another is nothing more than a matter of emphasis. Such a distinction is comparable to the discovery of differences between children of the same parents. From the maternal point of view there is nothing but contrast in temperament; to the casual visitor, little but

similarity in feature, voice and carriage. At a distance of more than two centuries from this epoch the historical stranger can see still persisting the same two elements which threatened England in 1600 and disrupted it in 1650, now once more contiguous but by no means recemented together. Their very distribution over the city is significant. To the west and south of Charing Cross was a community which might complacently adopt as its standard Etherege's measure of quality when he wrote:

"a gentleman out to dress well, dance well, fence well, have a talent for love letters, a pleasant voice in a room, to be always very amorous, sufficiently discreet, but not too constant."

But east of Whitehall in the old City the reaction on this same set of people was bitterly expressed in Milton's lines:

"where the noise
Of riot ascends above their loftiest towers
And injury and outrage; and when night
Darkens the streets, then wander forth the sons
Of Belial, flown with insolence and wine."

This, however, is a dark side of the picture. One might go on without end, as Macaulay has, in discussion of politico-social conditions; but, in a way, even though intensely exciting times were still to come, the social and artistic life of London emerged from now on to a state of independence where it may be regarded as an index which can be read without direct reference to the lawmakers and their doings.

The reopening of the theaters, after eighteen years of almost complete inactivity, came as a matter of course in 1660. All the chief play-houses of Elizabethan times had passed into disuse, and most of them had been destroyed. With the organization of two new companies, the King's Theater was early erected in Drury Lane, near Charing Cross north of the Strand, and the Duke's Theater at Lincoln's Inn Fields, a short distance to the north and east. At the outset the play itself was adapted or designed to fit the

Restoration audience. Shakespeare was more or less "revised downward;" French drama, according to others than Taine, was made sordid in translation; and the original comedies of the day were pretty shocking productions, no offender being more culpable than John Dryden. There is a grain of comfort that from the first the theaters seem to have been improved in at least a physical way. Says Pepys: "The stage is now . . . a thousand times better and more glorious than ever heretofore. Now wax candles, and many of them; then not above 3 lbs. of tallow: now, all things civil, no rudeness anywhere; then, as in a bear garden: then, two or three fiddlers; now, nine or ten of the best: then, nothing but rushes on the ground, and everything else mean; and now all otherwise: then, the Queen seldom, and the King would never come; now, not only the King only for state, but all civil people do think they may come as well as any."

Possibly one result of the use of many candles was the change in the opening hour from three to six in the afternoon. At any rate by Addison's time the shift had come, so that the member of the Inner Temple in the Spectator's club started at five to have his "shoes rubbed and his periwig powdered," before taking a turn at Will's until the play began at the Drury Lane theater. By Addison's time, too, more play houses had sprung up—at Covent Garden, the Haymarket, the Opera House, and Goodman's Fields.

Yet all of this machinery was devoted to a degenerate stage which even in the reigns of William and Mary and of Anne, still felt the noxious influence of Charles II. All the material for drama was lavishly supplied. The romantic variety of loosely disciplined life, the strong contrast between opposing social elements, the splendor of town and court, the picturesque and tragic memories of such national disasters as the Plague and the Fire, the background of recurrent and always imminent struggle with rival nations on the continent; leisure, culture, and a taste for writing—

all of these might have combined into the making of great drama had there been any genuinely deep social impulse towards such an end. But there was not. Dryden, the biggest man of the day who wrote for the stage, was a more or less deliberate truckler to depraved tastes. Under the circumstances there was little to be hoped for from the subsequent satire of Wycherley, "the sparkling dialogue and fine raillery of Congreve, the frank nature and admiration of Vanbrugh, the manifold inventions of Farquhar." Though the playhouses thrived, this same verdict was rendered among thinking contemporaries. Jeremy Collier in a tremendous attack followed up Prynne's assault of two generations earlier. And Addison in his negative way seemed to express disapproval. Look over his *Spectator* papers for his opinions on the theater. I have just run through two hundred of them as a test. He refers often to the Italian Opera, and he devotes one short series to a discussion of classical tragedy; not a word of contemporary plays and playwrights.

For the fact is that the stage of the early 18th century was representative of a passing order, and that Addison was one of a group of popular spokesmen who were turning the mind of England toward a thoughtful examination of its own conduct. This was the natural reaction after half a century of reckless living—a new allotment of emphasis in the scheme of life. There had, of course, been no lack of thinking people during these fifty years, but they had been a neglected minority. In the midst of what was beyond peradventure a boisterous and unreflective age—if ever there can be justification for such generalities—*Pilgrim's Progress* had appeared, but the fact remains that *Pilgrim's Progress* was an index not to all England, but only to what was at the time an inconsiderable fraction. It was not till 1710 or so that England began to give heed to its ways. The change was neither complete nor sudden; such changes never are. It was well toward a century later before even the

supreme literature came to have a deeply spiritual significance; but literature, even in Addison's day, and largely owing to his influence was elevated and dignified in comparison to what had gone before, even though it was superficial in contrast to what was to follow.

Moreover, the new moralistic literature now became widely popular. Addison was, to be sure, the product of his age, but could a man of the Addisonian type have been writing during the first decade of the Restoration, he might have gone on *ad infinitum* without achieving a literary audience worth the name. Yet now he wrote for thousands, this famous "parson in a tye-wig," and universal applause eagerly greeted the man of whom a later critic of life could say: "I think Addison's [life] was one of the most enviable. A life prosperous and beautiful—a clean death, an immense fame and affection afterwards for his happy and spotless name." Nor was he alone. Richard Steele, rake among scholars but scholar among rakes, was writing "The Christian Hero" even while accumulating scandalous debts with blithe nonchalance. Pope was composing felicitous couplets on man, nature, poetry and criticism—perfectly obvious comments that for generations no one had thought to make. Swift, in vitriolic outbursts, was doing a very similar thing in an utterly different way. Life was becoming a gentler and more sophisticated affair. Men were discovering that in the exciting experience of living with each other noise and tumult were not indispensable. The age was arrived again when men could appreciate the innate refinement of Steele's courtly tribute, "to have loved her was a liberal education." This is not the kind of remark that Rochester used to make of Nell Gwynne, or Congreve of Mrs. Bracegirdle.

With this altered attitude toward life, the lines of social cleavage began in a measure to fade, and a unified community heaped rewards and honors on the leading men of letters. Pope made a fortune, the first English author

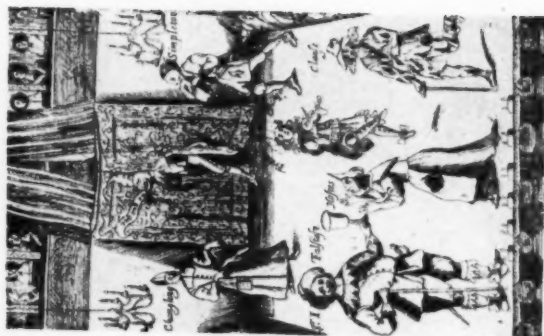
to achieve one with his pen. Steele held four different offices in the gift of the state. Gay was Secretary to the Earl of Clarendon; John Dennis had a place in the Custom House. Prior and Tickell were both, among other holdings, Under Secretaries of State. Addison's record reads like the "Who's Who" of a modern cabinet minister: "Commissioner of Appeals; Under Secretary of State; Secretary to the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; Keeper of the Records in Ireland; Lord of Trade; and one of the principal Secretaries of State." All these offices he held without doubt because he deserved to hold them; but he gained these offices because he had gained the ear of London.

Listen to "the parson" as he preaches. "Let not impudence get the better of modesty." "Avoid foolish superstitions." "Discourage the habit of duelling." "Eat and drink with measure." "Remember that happiness is of a retired nature, an enemy to pomp and noise." "Be kindly in speech." "Seek innocent diversions, enjoy friendship, cultivate the arts." These are good, sound, wholesome and inoffensive doctrines: but he was not always preaching. Often he was content to expound life as he saw it. The crowded state of the professions, the opera, woman's head-dress—a hundred other evergreen topics of this not very profound type he passed in review. In any age they would make for conversation. There were special reasons why they did so in the early 18th century. "It was said of Socrates that he brought Philosophy down from heaven to inhabit among men; and I shall be ambitious to have it said of me, that I have brought Philosophy out of closets and libraries, schools and colleges, to dwell in clubs and assemblies, at tea-tables and in coffee-houses."

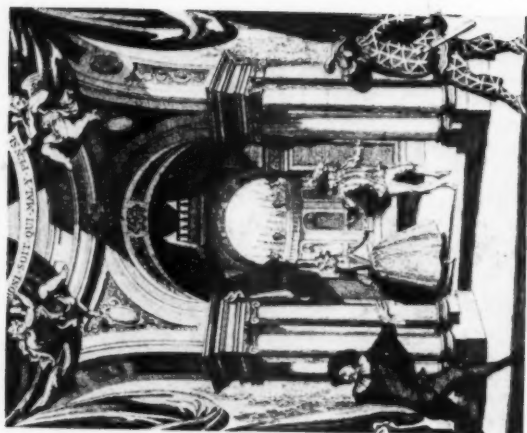
The most remarkable social products of Addison's lifetime were the Coffee-House and the club. The drinking of coffee, a recent and fashionable acquisition, favored talk and not intoxication. Admission cost a penny, the cup of tea or coffee, tuppence; and in the opinion of many the accompany-



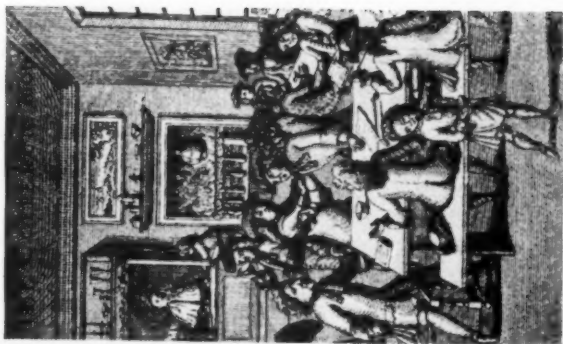
Alexander Pope, with Martha Blount, by Charles Jervas



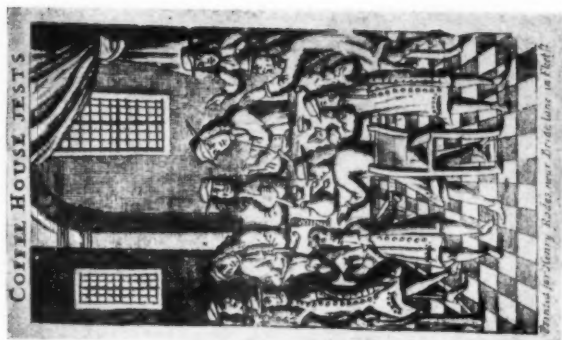
The Stage in 1670



The Stage in 1721



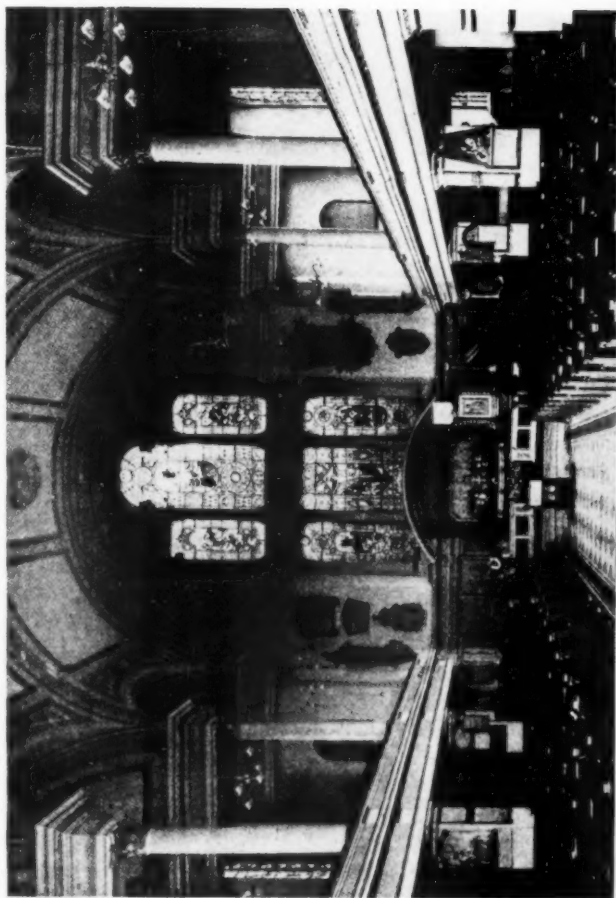
"Coffee House Babble" on the
Sacheverell Case, 1710



Company at a Coffee House.
From "Coffee House Jests, Re-
fined and Enlarged," 1688



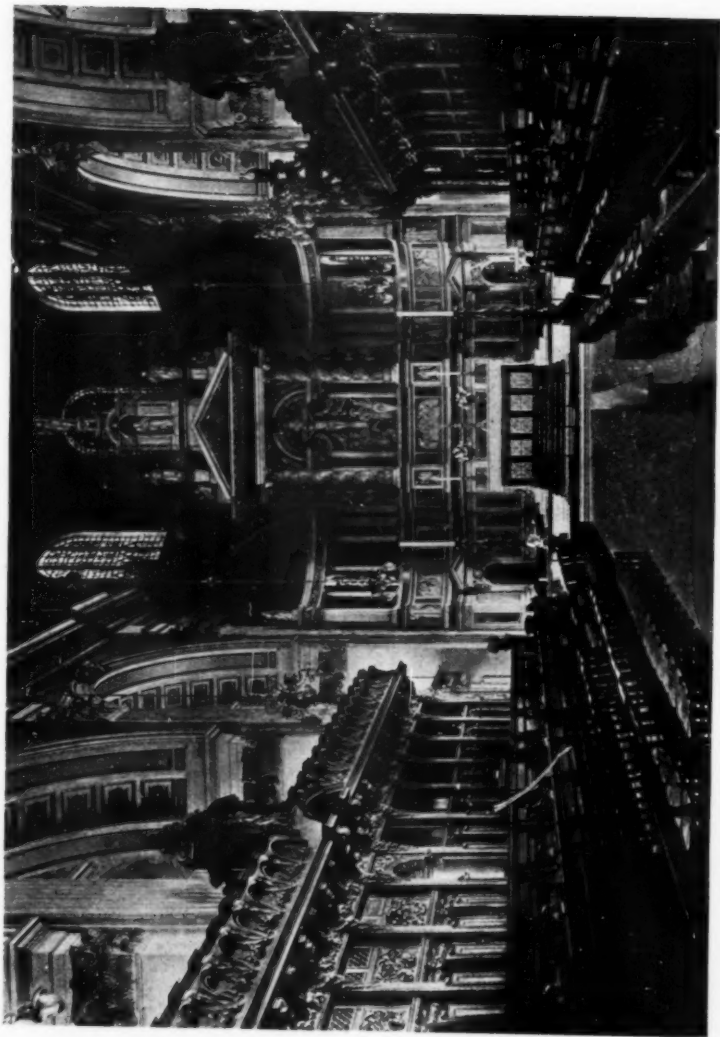
The Custom House, 1698. Sir Christopher Wren, Architect



Interior of St. James's Church, Piccadilly. Sir Christopher Wren, Architect



St. Paul's Cathedral. Sir Christopher Wren, Architect



Interior of St. James's Church, Piccadilly. Sir Christopher Wren, Architect



The Fire Monument. Sir Christopher Wren, Architect

ing talk was often priceless. As genuine conversation could only thrive best among men of kindred minds it developed that most of the coffee-houses automatically became centers for informal clubs. The author of *A Brief and Merry History of Great Britain* stated the case well: "At those Coffee-Houses, near the Court, called White's, St. James's, William's, the conversation turns chiefly upon *Equipages, Essencé, Horse-Matches, Tupees, Modes and Mortgages*; the Cocoa-Tree upon *Bribery and Corruption, Evil ministers, Errors and Mistakes in Government*; the Scotch Coffee-Houses toward Charing Cross, on *Places and Pensions*; the Tilt Yard and Young Man's on *Affronts, Honour, Satisfaction, Duels and Rencounters*. . . . In those Coffee-Houses about the Temple the subjects are generally on *Causes, Costs, Demurrers, Rejoinders and Exceptions*; David's, the Welch Coffee-Houses in Fleet Street on *Births, Pedigrees and Descents*; Child's and the Chapter upon *Glebes, Tithes, Advowson's, Rectories and Lectureships*; . . . Hamlin's *Infant-Baptism, Lay-Ordination, Free Will, Election and Reprobation* . . . and all those about the Exchange, where the Merchants meet to transact their affairs, are in a perpetual hurry about *Stock-Jobbing, Lying, Cheating, Tricking Widows and Orphans*, and committing Spoil and Rapine on the Publick."

Practically all the active minded men of the day went habitually, and so "belonged" to from one to four of these open congresses. As Gazettes and other journals were subscribed for at the houses, it was thus that Addison was grounded in what seems at first an extraordinary estimate that each number of *The Spectator* was read by twenty people. But interchange of opinion, rather than reading, was the glory of the Coffee-House. The groups which regathered from day to day gave character to the places they frequented, and many of them became identified with some leader who, by virtue of his powers of talk controlled the discussions, and often addressed no mean audiences. Thus

Dryden dominated Will's, and Addison, Button's. So abounding was the lively wit of these taverns and coffee-houses that history and literature are full of them, whether in the contemporary references from Addison to Boswell or in the uses to which they have been put in fiction from Scott and Thackeray on to the present day.

In Addison's lifetime (1672-1719) London life was being carried on amidst new architectural surroundings. After the great Fire, schemes for the rebuilding of the city on less casual lines were promptly presented by many, the most important coming from Evelyn and Wren. The attitude of modern Londoners toward the fact that all these plans were rejected, depends on whether they are most inclined to rejoice in the survival of old street lines, or to lament the absence of Parisian regularity in the lay of the land. In a way, however, even though one man's unified design was not to be imposed on the vast destroyed acreage, one man's genius stamped itself on the rebuiled town. For Christopher Wren, indefatigable as Rubens on canvas or Grinling Gibbons in wood-carving, was soon made "surveyor general and principal architect for rebuilding the whole city; the cathedral church of St. Paul; all the parochial churches . . . with other public structures." For forty years he worked incessantly. He accomplished enough to have satisfied an average man in his work as surveyor of Westminster, in his additions to Windsor Castle, and his achievements at Oxford, Cambridge and elsewhere; but meanwhile he designed and carried to conclusion the Monument commemorative of the Fire, the new St. Paul's, fifty-two parish churches, thirty of the companies' halls, and many private houses. Except in deliberate perversity one cannot walk for five minutes in any neighborhood between Charing Cross and the Tower, the River and London Wall or Holborn, without encountering one or more of these buildings. The thousands of shops and dwellings that sprang up during these years were of a new sort. The old timbered over-

hanging houses, enriched by a multiplicity of lines and ornaments, were replaced with severely regular structures of stone, brick or plaster. Here and there, as at Staple Inn on Holborn, or the quaint survival on Fleet Street at the end of Chancery Lane, the older types yet stand, but, for the most part the angular rectitude of Gerrard Street, as Dryden used to know it, is in a way indicative of what was become the new order of things.

The steady growth of the city had brought its population to three quarters of a million by 1700. London now included in the almost wholly rebuilt section "a lawyer's quarter from Gray's Inn to the Temple; a quarter north of the Strand occupied by coffee-houses, taverns, theaters, a great market and the people belonging to these places." Outside to the east and north of the Tower, was a workman's quarter at Whitechapel, and to the west an aristocratic quarter bounded by the City, Westminster, Hyde Park and Oxford Street. "On the other side of the river, between London Bridge and St. George's, was a busy High Street with streets left and right; and the river bank was lined with houses from Paris Garden to Rotherhithe. Already London had become, as it is today, an aggregation of towns each with its own individuality, the list by 1700 totalling forty-six besides the City and Westminster.

(End of Required Reading for January, pages 19-85)



The Cathedral Tower*

By Vida Dutton Scudder

I

This lofty tower with its fretwork hoary,
Comrade of clouds, majestic, silent, pure,
Laughs scorn at Time: its climbing stones endure,
Telling their steadfast immemorial story,
From age to age a refuge and a glory
To men that pass: e'en so, eternal, sure,
The Church of Christ renders her sons secure
In faith not mutable nor transitory.

Not mutable? Nay, gaze into the sky,
Of clouds and tower the abiding home!
Even as the mists that round its summit roam
This tower must vanish: not to man is given
To rear a faith perpetual: creeds pass by,—
Alone eternal is the light from heaven.

II

Thus as I mused, a mystic lightning ran:
Around me shone a visionary morn.
Vanished the church;—unsheltering, forlorn,
The dawn-lit land: "All fleeting work of man,
Piteous and faulty, far as thought can scan,"—
So spoke a Voice—"has perished through thy scorn:
Shape now a faith free from delusions born
Of ancient creeds since history began."

Mine those horizons glorious and wide:
The earth was mine: I breathed exultant, free!
"Nature, be thou my temple!" low I cried,—
"I seek no truth save in my soul and thee!"
And higher and higher soared my mounting pride,
Till sudden terror broke my ecstasy.

* By permission of *The Churchman*.

III

My shrinking soul in solitude did cower:
I sought for God, but found him not: in vain
I sought then for my fellows: that gray plain
Was strewn with graves whereon no love could flower.
Then chiming music broke my evil hour,—
Aloft, afar, a peace won out of pain:
I raised my trembling eyes, and smiled: again,
Protecting, gracious, by me rose the tower.

Swiftly my feet sped toward the welcoming chime,
While choral voices chanted, clear and strong,
"The truth of time be thine, thou son of time,
Till time be done. Here enter, kneel and pray,
Joining our age-long praise: the eternal song
Suspends its secrets till the eternal day."



Notes

The following extract from the *Survey* of October, 1910, bears immediately on Mr. Alden's "Democratic England" discussion and on Mr. McClure's article in this number.

INQUIRY INTO UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of unemployment thus far secured in the United States are very unsatisfactory, for the work of securing accurate data on this important industrial problem has scarcely begun in this country. Special interest, therefore, will attach to the second report of the New York State Commission on Employers' Liability and Causes of Industrial Accidents, Unemployment and Lack of Farm Labor. Having made its report to the Legislature upon Em-

ployers' Liability and secured the enactment of its recommendations into law, the commission has now turned its attention to the other subjects assigned to it.

George A. Voss, chairman of the sub-committee on unemployment, and William M. Leiserson, who has been engaged by the commission to take charge of its investigation of unemployment, have spent the summer in Europe making an inquiry into the recent efforts to solve this difficult problem in foreign countries.

Meanwhile, printed inquiries have been sent out from the office of the commission in New York to all trade unions and employers reporting to the State Department of Labor. The secretaries of the trade unions are asked such questions as these:

Is unemployment a grave problem in your trade?

How much time during the year does the average workman at your trade lose?

Is your trade seasonal? If so, how many months is it busy? How many months is it slack? How many months is there no work?

What is the least number of members that you have had unemployed at any time during the last year? What is the greatest number? etc.

The employers were asked to give the number of their employes for each month of the year 1909, and also, if possible, the greatest and least number employed during each of the last ten years. They were asked also:

During 1909 how many months was your plant running full time? How many months part time?

How many days was your plant idle during 1909, and what were the reasons for closing down?

Are you always able to get all the help you want?

What kind of labor do you find scarce?

What kind of labor is over-supplied? etc.

Finally both employers and trade union secretaries were asked to give their opinions in regard to the establishment of state labor exchanges, and also to furnish the commission with any observations they cared to make in regard to the causes, extent and effects of unemployment and the remedies therefor. The response to these inquiries has been very gratifying. Replies have been received from 728 employers and 388 trade unions, and they are still coming in, so that there is a prospect of securing statistics of exceptional value.

CLEVELAND FARMS

In an article on the "Habitual Drunkard" in the *Survey* of October 1, 1910, Bailey B. Burritt writes as follows of the Cleveland Farm system as applicable to inebriates:

The city of Cleveland has perhaps advanced further than any other American city in the provision of farm colonies to which persons arrested for public intoxication and other minor offenses may be committed. It has provided a farm containing approximately 1,000 acres of land. This makes possible a favorable environment and varied oppor-

tunities for good, wholesome, outdoor work for the inmates. Harris R. Cooley, formerly director of the Department of Charities and Correction, in response to inquiries with regard to the possibilities of the farm colony treatment for the habitual alcoholic, replied as follows:

We have taken a number of the victims of drink to our farms, but we have no regularly established department for this work. We have to use the old legal machinery. The men are sentenced to the workhouse or House of Correction. There we give them treatment and as soon as they are in proper physical condition, we transfer them to the outside life and work at the Correction Farm Division of the Cooley Farms. These farms consist of nearly two thousand acres in one body and present a great variety of outdoor employment.

I trust the time may come when we will have an indeterminate sentence for these men, so that we can hold them on the farm until they are restored to normal condition. We have one man who has been sent to the workhouse over ninety times for intoxication. About four months ago his legal time expired. I had a talk with him and advised him to remain at least for the winter on the correction farm. This he has done and he now says he will stay until we think he is able to stand. Another man who has a family was paroled on condition that he was to remain in the country. Our deputy draws his wages and his wife comes out after the money. From our experience with these cases, I am sure that we could bring good results in special departments established for this work, provided we could have the men sent to us for a sufficient length of time. I am exceedingly glad that other cities are taking up this work. For these men, who have fully demonstrated their inability to withstand the temptations of the city life, it is so much more rational to control their environment on a great farm in the country than it is to attempt to reconstruct and restrict the conditions of an entire municipality.

Cleveland's New Methods of Care for Her Wards

By W. Frank McClure

THE city of Cleveland, Ohio, is unlike any other municipality in the United States when it comes to dealing with its wards and unfortunates. For her juvenile delinquents she possesses the only boys' farm in America which is owned and managed by a city government. Likewise the grouping of all her penal, sanitary, and charitable institutions, aside from the boys' farm, upon two thousand acres of rich farm land, is decidedly unique, while the "golden rule" policy of the police department is one of the most radical reforms of the present century.

The number of arrests in Cleveland decreased 20,000 in a single year under the "golden rule" policy. A large per cent of the decreased workhouse population is out milking cows, planting crops, and working in the farm quarters, without even the impediment of a ball and chain or a uniformed guard. The juvenile delinquents, living in family groups of fifteen, outside their hours of study, participate in the activities of the sugar bush or the care of the barnyard many of these boys breathing country air for the first time.

The most notable feature of Cleveland's treatment of her wards is represented in the grouping of her infirmary, workhouse, and tuberculosis charges in separate villages upon one large tract of land. This tract represents twenty distinct farms. The location is known as Warrensville, ten miles from Cleveland, on a high plateau which separates the Chagrin and Cuyahoga valleys at an elevation of 600 feet above Lake Erie. As rapidly as the buildings are completed, the city's wards represented in the three classes already mentioned are leaving their crowded and smoky quarters down town for this highest and finest rural point

in Cuyahoga county. At present there are at Warrensville about 1,000 people. When all the buildings are completed there will be 2,000 or more.

One department or village is made to serve another to the end that all shall become self-supporting. The raising of certain crops and live stock is delegated to the infirmary division and other portions of the work to the workhouse division. Sufficient cows and chickens are kept to supply all the wards of Cleveland with needed eggs and milk. The hay and grain that is used by the live stock is raised on the farm and there is some to spare for the horses of the police and fire department down in the city. Later, a mill is to be erected and the flour of the entire colony made right on the farm. The women at the infirmary bake the bread and do the laundry work. The prisoners at the workhouse division who can not be trusted out over the farm lands, stoke the boilers which will eventually furnish heat by way of an underground system to all colony buildings and do other work of equal importance.

Rev. Harrison R. Cooley, the originator of the idea, has always insisted that it be made plain that this is not one great farm even though it is in one piece. He wishes it considered as a group of farms in which the different classes of city wards are entirely separate. People in other cities who have heard about the new plan but have not visited the site, have raised the objection that it was a throwing together in one company of criminals with infirmary wards and poor tuberculosis patients whose only crime was that they were poor. One critic was convinced of the error of such a statement when, with Dr. Cooley, he took a walk from the tuberculosis hospital to the workhouse division. The distance which they walked was a mile and a half while the same distance lies between the infirmary village and the workhouse, and nearly three-quarters of a mile between the infirmary and the tuberculosis hospital.

A mile of trolley line built by the city connects this large

tract with the regular trolley route to Cleveland. The city maintains a special car which carries the city wards to and fro and which is also used in the transportation of freight and the supplies not raised directly on the ground.

Apples were just beginning to ripen and the harvesting of turnips and some other produce which was to be placed in winter cellars had just begun, at the time of year in which I visited this group of villages. The tuberculosis patients were walking in large numbers over the hills and in the orchards in the balmy air of that high altitude, each with a little paper cup in his or her hand. Some who had never before seen a farm or a real orchard were eating apples to their heart's content. A few men and their wives, or brothers and sisters, were recuperating here together. On one of the hills a fire was burning in a small furnace and, every now and then, some patient wended his way to its side and deposited therein one of the little boxes in which he had been expectorating.

The tubercular patients who come here are, of course, those of the poor who are rendered helpless or unable to work through lung troubles and are unable to go to a sanitarium where pay is required. They are mainly in the stages of tuberculosis in which they can be cured or helped. A large number who have already come to Warrensville have been able, after taking the open air treatment and nourishing food, to return home and to their duties and thus relieve the city of their dependency. The milk and eggs afforded by the farm, as well as the fresh air, contribute to the cures effected.

After walking the necessary mile and a half between the tuberculosis sanitarium and the workhouse division, I came upon a group of men who were gathering and covering up in the ground for winter use, cabbages, turnips, carrots, and other vegetables. Two-horse wagons were coming in from the fields with these products. Inquiry revealed that these men, including those who were driving the wagons to

and fro, were prisoners of the city of Cleveland. There were about a hundred of them. Not one wore a ball and chain. No armed guards were in sight. Lordly uniforms were not in evidence and on the temporary buildings which the men were occupying there were no iron bars. And only three of these prisoners had attempted to escape in an entire summer. Not a few of them are for the first time in their lives, amid conducive surroundings, getting a new outlook on life.

Many of the prisoners at Warrensville have been living in lodges scattered about the workhouse village for months. These lodges are presided over by plain clothes guards. For the prisoners who are charged with the more serious offenses, or those who have become hardened by long years of association with the old workhouse, it is recognized that a permanent building, which does not admit of possible escape, is a necessity. Such a building has been erected and is shown in one of the accompanying illustrations. In it, however, are only sixty cells. The majority of inmates sleep in wards like the patients in a hospital.

At the highest point in this building is the sun tower. This was built for refractory prisoners to take the place of the dungeon which has come down to us from medieval ages. The man who refuses to obey the rules can here be placed where he can think it over in the midst of quieting sunbeams, and where he can look out upon his fellows in the fields, and witness what the city is really trying to accomplish for the class of which he is one. He will compare these surroundings with the old workhouse confinement, and will come to himself much quicker than in dungeon gloom.

But the innovation here is no more important and radical than that of the new infirmary village as planned by Dr. Cooley. The main building is conceded to be the finest and best arranged in the world. The service quadrangle built about an open service court alone covers an acre.

Most of it is two stories high and it is in Spanish mission architecture. In the open court in the center are flower beds and fountains. In the main building are the laundry, bakery, kitchen, and other like departments. From each corner of the quadrangle the dining halls and the cottages radiate and, as they spread out over the acreage, they comprise indeed a village.

Better than the beauty and convenience of the buildings, however, is the arrangement for aged couples and for the grouping of people of like tastes. Men and their wives, instead of being separated in men's and women's respective departments, are allowed to spend their remaining days together in cottages each with its little garden plot to work. There is also an old couple's home having sixteen rooms, four baths, and two living rooms with fireplaces and outside entrances to the first floor. And just inside over the fireplace is this inscription from Browning:

"Grow old along with me,
The best is yet to be.
The last of life for which the first was made,
Grow old, nor be afraid."

In other portions of the infirmary village, Dr. Cooley's idea provides for the grouping together of men in accordance with their degrees of intelligence and education. Many an educated man, through no fault of his own, finds in his latter days that he has become a ward of the city or county in which he lives. One of the trials of his sojourn in the average infirmary is that he is thrown in company with men of altogether different tastes. This is obviated under the plan just described. There is also a separate apartment for cripples in which everything is made as comfortable as possible for getting to the dining tables and about the rooms.

The Cleveland Boys' Farm is situated near the historic town of Hudson, some thirty-five miles from the Warrensville villages or an hour's ride from the Cleveland public square. The area owned by the city at this point amounts

to 283 acres and, with its buildings and equipment, represents an outlay of \$70,000. There are on this tract of land eight cottages, four barns, an engine house, carpenter shop, laundry, bakery, gymnasium, water works, sewer system, and electric light plant.

At present there are about 130 boys at this farm all under sixteen years of age, received from the juvenile court. Were it not for this farm, many of them would be in state reformatories and carry with them through life the stigma incidental thereto. The graver cases of really bad boys are still sent to the reformatories, but there is no disgrace in going to the municipal boys' farm. Many of the lads sent here are simply those with no homes or whose homes are worse than none, and who are practically compelled to live upon the streets which in itself makes them delinquents in the eyes of the law.

Each group of fifteen boys occupying a cottage at the farm is presided over by a master and matron who try to maintain the family atmosphere, the family altar, and all that goes to make a model home. Some of the boys help about the housework, others feed the chickens, cows, and sheep and are given instructions in farming, carpentering and like work, in addition to having their hours for school work and for play. There are no cells or bars or locks.

In the spring, these boys may be found making maple sugar and syrup in the sugar bush which is a feature of this farm. During one recent year these boys took care of a yield of 600 gallons of maple syrup, a portion of which was shipped to the workhouse, the infirmary village, and the city hospital. The boys also raise all the farm produce which they themselves consume. Fifty acres of oats for the horses and seventeen acres of potatoes were planted one year, and the planting of an extensive acreage of strawberries and blackberries and other small fruits has been proposed.

The majority of all the boys who have been brought

to this farm have been found to respond to the loving influences both of the farm and those in charge of the work. Very many of them never knew before coming here what it was to have a kind word spoken to them. As soon as they arrive, they are told that the past is gone and to try and forget it and work for the future. None of the boys are permitted to even speak of their past troubles.

Boys beyond the school age who have no home, when paroled are allowed to remain at the farm and earn their living if they choose. They are given their board and paid some wages and begin a bank account in their own name. This, with the training they get along practical lines of labor, continues to fit them for the labors of life.

Chief of Police Kohler's notable "golden rule" police policy is one of the most important innovations of Cleveland's treatment of unfortunates. This "golden rule" policy provides that each policeman shall use his judgment and common sense in dealing with offenses which are merely a violation of the city ordinances and punishable by a small fine. The police are told to take into consideration the intent to violate an ordinance and also the question of maliciousness on the part of an offender. A drunken man is taken home and warned instead of being taken to jail for the first offense. Two men fighting are separated and, if it be their first offense, reasoned with and sent home. A record is kept of all persons thus released or warned.

The object of this plan is to dispose of trivial misdemeanors without arrest and to prevent the humiliation of persons who through thoughtlessness, passion or temper, or in a spirit of frolic of mischievousness, violate the law. Also it prevents the humiliation and disgrace of near relatives of such offenders and reduces the work of the police departments and police court attaches and consequently decreases the number of attaches needed.

The assertion was made at first that this new plan was placing a dangerous discretionary power in the hands of the

police. This has not proven true, however. After the first six months' test, Chief Kohler said that the members of the department had accomplished results beyond his expectations in this common sense policy. In his address before the national meeting of chiefs of police at Detroit he said:

"I believe that this policy will put the American policeman in the position he should occupy. He will learn that the people he has to deal with are human beings, not machines; likely to make mistakes and failures, but therefore not lost souls. And I believe that the patrolman should be the friend and patrol officer of these laggards. I believe that the best policeman is he who manages all offenders against the law with the least show of authority and with the greatest sense of human justice."

In the first eight months under this plan the statistics showed a decrease of sixty-five per cent in the number of arrests over the same period of the year before, but Chief Kohler urged that there were still too many arrests. During the first quarter of the year 1910 there were 1,283 arrests as against 7,126 in the same period in 1907. The time saved on minor offenses has given the police more opportunity to run down and deal severely with intentional violators and those committing felonies.

The Cleveland Brotherhood Club for Ex-Workhouse Prisoners represents still another phase of the unique and practical ideas being carried out in the Forest City in the care of unfortunates. This is not a municipal institution, but it is given hearty coöperation by those in authority and supplements the good work being done for those who fall into the hands of the law. The Brotherhood Club's home occupies a building overlooking Lake Erie just east of the Cleveland union passenger station.

Two men paroled from the Cleveland workhouse some four years ago rented a room in a tenement in which to make their home until they secured work. Realizing from

their own experience the necessity of a friend, and desiring to help some of their fellows, at their request two others were released from the workhouse and sent to them for food and shelter. These men formed a club for mutual help and soon in their crowded surroundings there were nine paroled men. As soon as a member obtained work, a portion of his income was used to help others.

By this time the attention of the Director was called to the club and he did all in his power to encourage it. Later the building now in use was secured. At first only a portion of the building was used. Now forty rooms are occupied. The entire work is in charge of Mr. Frank Ward, who was for several years chaplain of the Cleveland workhouse and a worker of long experience in city missions.

Not only are the paroled prisoners, who have been cared for at this home until they could get work, now helping to support it, but they are also helping to furnish it. Already the Brotherhood Club has acquired more than \$1,500 worth of furniture. During the fiscal year 1908-1909, it cost \$8,255 to maintain this club. The receipts from the men themselves were about \$6,000. Prominent people of the city assisted in the finances. Since the club was established, nearly 1,000 men have found shelter under its roof. Seventy-five per cent of this number have kept from vagrancy and crime. Very many of them have become most useful citizens and some active workers in the city churches and missions. One man who had been in the workhouse 100 times has, since he came under the influence of the Brotherhood Club, been completely reclaimed and for more than a year now has been sober and industrious.

What has actually been accomplished in Cleveland along the lines treated of in this article has brought a new vision to the eyes of people in many parts of the United States as the news has spread, and men and women interested in these problems from far and near are coming to this city to learn more about the new ideas here being carried into effect.



Cleveland's new village for prisoners, in the woods ten miles from the city



Open court with fountain and flowers about which the main infirmary building at Warrensville is built. This view also illustrates the Spanish style of architecture



The Infirmary group of buildings at the Farm Colony as they
now appear



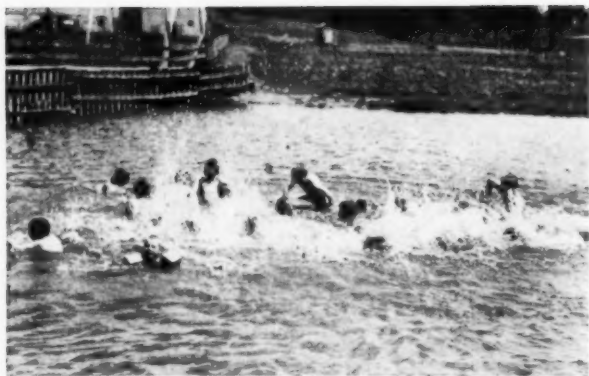
General plan of the Infirmary Village as it is to appear when
fully completed



Group of Cleveland's Wards at the Farm's Sugar Bush



Fire Drill at the Boys' Farm



Swimming hole at the only Municipal Boys' Farm in the United States



Riding the donkeys at the Boys' Farm



A Lean-to in the Tuberculosis Division of the Cleveland Municipal
Farm Colony



Building occupied by the Brotherhood of ex-Workhouse Prisoners,
Cleveland, Ohio



The Bread Line

Permission of the Christian Herald

The Bread Line

Permission of the Christian Herald



The Bread Line

Permission of the Christian Herald



A Night's Lodging in the Street
Permission of the Christian Herald

Marooned

By Abby Merchant

IN the midst of such vast and continuous activity as New York presents, it is difficult to realize that nearly a fourth of the city's inhabitants are yearly numbered among the country's unemployed: that in this ocean of throbbing energies, of desires, and accomplishment nearly a million people are marooned in idleness. Marooned on the corner of Forty-second Street and in Park Row; isolated in the city squares around which the tides of business life flow swiftest and strongest; deserted in the Bowery, a stone's throw from Broadway itself.

This unfortunate crew, cast off from the ship of society, numbers men of every trade, science and profession, as well as the day laborer and the small mechanic. Men of refinement and culture have found their way there, and among the foreigners, are some of aristocratic, even noble birth. For the most part able-bodied men, they are watching the life of others move on in prosperity with dull and deadened eyes. They have ceased to regard living as a trial of possibilities, and the open doors of opportunity appear to them but lures to further disappointment.

That this body of unemployed is a serious clog upon the nation's welfare is becoming only too obvious, but it is only recently that the government has definitely set itself to find out the reasons for the state of affairs. The Report of the Wainwright Commission, it is to be hoped, will considerably illuminate the subject, but in the meanwhile the unemployed tramp the streets or lounge on the park benches. While the government is investigating as to the big causes responsible for the situation, the missions, charitable institutions, and social settlements are battling with the results of these deep-seated complaints, endeavoring to catch up the individual cases, and arrest the downward progress of the man who has lost his job before he slides over the brink into pauperism.

For the pauper represents a last stage in retrogression, rather than a class of the unemployed. There is, of course, the professional "bum," a happy, irresponsible soul, untroubled with ideals or thoughts for the future. In the summer, he gets odd jobs to do on the wharfs where it is cool; in the winter, he shovels a little snow, gets "taken up," if nothing better offers, and is not above eking out his meager existence with a petty theft or by begging at a busy corner. He rests content that some institution will solve the question of his livelihood in his old age, and having spent his life on the verge of pauperism, he tumbles at last quietly over the brink.

But for the most part, the pauper is the man who has struggled beyond his strength and has consciously and once for all given up the fight. The thing in him which kept him laboring to walk, independent, receives some last straw and snaps beneath the strain. No matter how stiff a resistance he has offered to fate when he has once sunk to pauperism with its shiftless pace, its irresponsible quiescence, it is practically impossible to make him resume the burden that self-respect imposes on a man.

And that they do offer a stiff resistance the hundreds of suicides among men who are without work bear witness. A sympathetic woman who was visiting the Bowery bread line, as one of the sights of the city, was moved to change what money she had with her into dimes, and distribute them along the waiting line. One man receiving his dime eagerly, immediately stepped out of the line and crossed the street to a drug store. He bought an ounce bottle of a poison which can be purchased without prescription, walked out to the curbstone and drank it. It was probably the first money he had had in his hands for days, perhaps for weeks. Life had reduced itself simply to a matter of three alternatives—pauperism, crime, or death. He preferred death.

For crime also, is a development of unemployment rather than a cause of it. Where the weak man sinks to pauperism, the strong man turns to crime. And the criminals do not remain in the class of unemployed. It was in reply to a question regarding the proportion of criminals in the bread line, that Mr. Hunt, superintendent of the Bowery Mission, said: "A man who will stand an hour and a half in the cold, or the snow and rain for a cup of coffee and a piece of bread, you can be pretty sure is not a criminal. A crook would have a hundred quicker ways of getting his food. He couldn't afford to spend the time, and he wouldn't stand the discomfort."

In glancing over the accompanying illustrations, all of them photographed without discrimination from along the Bowery, the lowest level upon which an unfortunate is marooned, it is noticeable how few of the faces even suggest criminality. Some of the men have their faces covered or their heads bent, a history suggested in the attitude; there are many fine foreheads, many well-set heads among them, but the lines of the faces are all drooping, and the eyes are set and staring from having looked so long at blankness.

It is not then the criminal instincts that the men dealing with the conditions of the unemployed must combat, but those long, drooping lines about the features and the deadened stare in the eyes—the unmistakable marks of despair that comes with a sense of being cut off from the world of men. President Taft, in his sympathetic speech before the Bowery Mission, showed a remarkable insight into the situation when he began: "I know it is difficult for you to believe that I, who for the time being, am receiving a large salary from the United States, and living in comfort, can understand or take into my heart the feeling you may have of desperation, and the sense of injustice you may have, in feeling that you have not had the chances other men have had. Yet I assure you that in spite of those seeming differences, your fellow-citizens and mine are not

the greedy, oppressive persons some would make you believe; but that more today than ever in the history of the world, their hearts are open and their desire to help the needy and the suffering is greater than it ever was; and is growing greater every minute."

It is this sense of isolation that continually oppresses, like a vast hand pushing against his face and blinding him, that in direst circumstance the struggling man must face. And it is only too easily acquired, for when a man is "down and out" every thing conspires against him and the little straws assume a gigantic weight in his burden. The little matter of a shave, alone, is enough to down a man at some points of his life. It is a task to keep clean in New York for half a day: at the end of a week, sleeping in the filth of cheap lodging houses or on a park bench, without the smallest toilet accessories, the most immaculate man will appear as a very undesirable employe. To be denied the simplest means by which he can raise himself out of his misfortune, is not calculated to implant friendly sentiments in his heart toward the world of other men. It is not strange that he feels every man's hand against him, and sees himself as an Ishmael and an outcast. And in consideration with this, perhaps he has to face the fact that he lost his job through no fault of his own, but because of a dull season in his trade. After struggling for months under the burden of poverty only to have added the heavier burden of sickness, there is little wonder that he welcomes the park bench and all it implies as at least a place from which he can fall no lower.

A few months ago an elderly, unkempt man carrying a book beneath his arm, entered a mission on the lower East Side and asked for work as a farmer. He was obviously unfitted for it and was told so. "Give me anything in the way of work," he said, "and I will do it. I am not a beggar. This book" (it was a philosophical treatise published by a well known house) "I wrote myself." Further

investigation discovered that he had held chairs in two different universities, but through a series of misfortunes had lost friends and influence, and, cast out into a life with which he was utterly unfitted to cope, had sunk bit by bit to the cheap lodging on the Bowery, and, at last, had been driven into the very street. Then he had asked for charity—the gift of work.

Among the most pathetic of these enforced idlers is the country boy who, in the fine spirit of adventure has set forth to seek his fortune in the city. Sometimes the fortunes of others are dependent upon him—a mother or younger brothers and sisters up-state. Accustomed to dealing only with people whose ways he knows and whom he can trust, he is bound to have some harsh experiences in the city. His little store of money is soon gone, perhaps in a single night, and then for him begins the long slide down. A few days will transform him from a bright-eyed cleanly boy into an unkempt, despairing man. His failure to find work becomes his crime and he is ashamed to write home. He is also ashamed to ask for charity, for the influences of the country town are still fresh in his mind, and in little towns charity-folk are pretty much looked down upon; he feels that to sink to that level is to commit himself absolutely to the eternally lost. And so he fights along, drifting farther and farther from all that stands to him for solidity and uprightness, until he falls into the hands of some crook looking for an apprentice, or a kindlier fate steers him into the bread line and thus into the grasp of those who have always a hand outstretched for just such boys.

No one can mention the unemployed of the city and the efforts made in their behalf without acknowledging the importance of the bread lines—the last step down and often the first step up to these unfortunates. There are several smaller ones in the city, as for example, that of Madison Square, but the largest and best known is that conducted by the Bowery Mission at 227 Bowery. This

begins officially on Thanksgiving morning and closes on Easter Sunday, but throughout the year a certain amount of food is to be had at one o'clock every morning.

The line begins to form long before the doors are open, and sometimes twenty-five hundred men are fed in a night. The bread and coffee in white enamel cups are served from a counter along the further end of a white-tiled basement. From the entrance, an alley only wide enough to allow a single file of men is fenced off along the wall and before the counter. When the food has been served, the line moves on out to a gate at the end opening into the main body of the basement, from which a second flight of steps leads up to the street.

The basement accommodates about eight hundred men and they are welcome to stay there if they choose until morning. No questions are asked of them: it is enough for the mission to know that for two or three hours each night a thousand or more homeless men and boys are warmed and fed, and in an atmosphere of light and cleanliness. Some of the men turn their faces away as the food is served to them: some gulp down the coffee and hide the bread in their clothes to take to those more unfortunate than themselves. But no man is sent away empty, and no one leaves without the assurance that, if he chooses he may return at any time to receive more lasting help.

In the last three years the superintendent of this mission has found work for over eight thousand men; three thousand of them have been placed in situations outside of the city. They have proved eminently satisfactory, and his letter files are full of voluntary recommendations of the most enthusiastic order. These men were drawn from such as form the bread lines and wander aimlessly about the city parks or along the Bowery. Men whom no one would like to sit beside because of their filth, their odor and generally evil appearance.

"If any one says that the unemployed are so, because

they have no willingness to work," said the superintendent, "tell him that if next week he wishes a thousand honest workers, I will furnish them."

Among the major causes giving rise to the horde of unemployed is one that is very near the surface, and obvious to even a casual observer. A large percentage of the bread lines and of charity applicants in general are foreigners who have been in the country for a year or more. This is due to the unfortunate fact that construction companies, lumber camps, and other businesses that employ large numbers of men, while they are willing to pay for the importation of foreigners, will not pay for the transportation of abler men already in the country. The reason is of course simple. The immigrant, anxious to come to America, because of his ignorance of the cost of living in this country will agree to work for much lower wages. Thus the newly arrived foreigner is never without a job, at least for the first few months after his coming. But later, when he has learned that he cannot live here on the wages paid, although he is more valuable because he now knows something of the language and the ways of the country, he cannot find employment: there is no chance for him to return to his old work, even if he would, because a new importation has arrived from the old country, who through ignorance have taken his job at the old impossible rate.

It is to the greater causes that the remedy must be applied. At present, the problem of the unemployed is being treated only from the surface, and like all surface methods, the handling is inadequate, and the need unending. Where one man is drawn out of his isolation, removed from his desert island and set afloat once more toward a safe harbor, there are two desperate voyagers to take his place. The trouble springs from the fundamental attitude of commerce toward the men employed in it, and until this is altered there is little hope of permanent improvement.



Wiltshire, in the south of England, has interest for the archaeologist in the much discussed relics of Stonehenge, for the lover of art in the beauty of Salisbury's spired cathedral, for the politician in the "rotten borough" of Old Sarum, for the industrialist in the carpet factories of Wilton, for the soldier in the summer military camp near Amesbury, for the historian in the evidences of British and Roman and Saxon habitation throughout the country, and for the student of literature in the number of well-known names connected with the shire. In Salisbury Goldsmith published "The Vicar of Wakefield," and here lived the dramatist, Massinger, and Fielding the novelist. Joseph Addison was born in the rectory at Milston; Sir Philip Sidney wrote his "Arcadia" at Wilton House, near Wilton, and George Herbert passed the last five years of his life in charge of the parish of Bemerton. Of Herbert, the "Sacred Poet," Izaak Walton, the gentle author of "The Compleat Angler," wrote a life containing, to quote Dr. Van Dyke, "some of the most charming passages of prose to be found in English literature." The following extracts will give confirmation of this eminent critic's opinion:

EXTRACTS FROM THE LIFE OF MR. GEORGE HERBERT By Izaak Walton

George Herbert was born the third day of *April*, in the year of our Redemption 1593. The place of his Birth was near to the Town of *Montgomery*, and in that *Castle* that did then bear the name of that Town and County; that *Castle* was then a place of State and Strength, and had been successively happy in the family of the *Herberts*, who had long possessed it; and, with it, a plentiful Estate, and hearts as liberal to their poor Neighbours. A family, that hath been blessed with men of remarkable wisdom, and a willingness to serve their Country, and indeed, to do good to all Mankind; for which they were eminent: But alas! this family did in the late Rebellion suffer extremely in their Estates; and the heirs of that *Castle* saw it laid level with that earth that was too good to bury those wretches that were the cause of it.

The father of our *George* was *Richard Herbert*. * * *

His Mother was *Magdalen Newport*. * * * A Family that for their loyalty have suffered much in their Estates, and seen the ruin of that excellent Structure, where their Ancestors have long lived, and been memorable for their Hospitality.

This Mother of *George Herbert* (of whose person, wisdom, and virtue, I intend to give a true account in a seasonable place) was the happy Mother of seven Sons and three Daughters, which *She* would often say, was *Job's Number* and *Job's distribution*; and as often bless God, that they were neither defective in their shapes or in their reason; and very often reprove them that did not praise

God for so great a blessing. I shall give the Reader a short account of their names, and not say much of their fortunes.

I now come to my intended account of *George*, who was the fifth of those seven Brothers.

George Herbert spent much of his Childhood in a sweet content under the eye and care of his prudent Mother, and the tuition of a Chaplain or Tutor to him, and two of his Brothers, in her own Family (for she was then a Widow), where he continued until about the Age of Twelve years; and being at that time well instructed in the Rules of Grammar, he was not long after commended to the care of Dr. *Neale*, who was then Dean of *Westminster*; and by him to the care of Mr. *Ireland*, who was then chief Master of that School; where the beauties of his pretty behaviour and wit shined and became so eminent and lovely in this his innocent Age, that he seemed to be marked out for piety, and to become the care of Heaven, and of a particular good Angel to guard and guide him. And thus he continued in that School, till he came to be perfect in the learned Languages, and especially in the Greek Tongue, in which he after proved an excellent Critic.

About the age of Fifteen (he being then a King's Scholar) he was elected out of that School for *Trinity College* in *Cambridge*, to which place he was transplanted about the year 1608; and his prudent Mother, well knowing that he might easily lose or lessen that virtue and innocence, which her advice and example had planted in his mind, did therefore procure the generous and liberal Dr. *Nevil*, who was then Dean of *Canterbury*, and Master of that College, to take him into his particular care, and provide him a Tutor; which he did most gladly undertake; for he knew the excellencies of his Mother, and how to value such a friendship.

This was the method of his education, till he was settled in *Cambridge*, where we will leave him in his Study, till I have paid my promised account of his excellent Mother, and I will endeavour to make it short.

And in *Cambridge* we may find our *George Herbert's* behaviour to be such, that we may conclude, he consecrated the first-fruits of his early age to virtue, and a serious study of learning.

I need not declare that he was a strict Student, because, that he was so, there will be many testimonies in the future part of his life. I shall therefore only tell, that he was made *Bachelor of Arts* in the year 1611; *Major Fellow* of the College, March 15, 1615; and that in that year he was also made *Master of Arts*, he being then in the 22d year of his age; during all which time, all, or the greatest diversion from his study, was the practice of music, in which he became a great master; and of which he would say, "That it did relieve his drooping spirits, compose his distracted thoughts, and raised his weary soul so far above the earth, that it gave him an earnest of the joys of heaven before he posset them."

This may be some account of his disposition and of the employment of his time, till he was Master of Arts, which was Anno

1615; and in the year 1619 he was chosen Orator for the University. * * * In this place of Orator, our *George Herbert* continued eight years, and managed it with as becoming and grave a gaiety as any had ever before or since his time. For *He had acquired a great Learning, and was blest with a high fancy, a civil and sharp wit, and with a natural elegance, both in his behaviour, his tongue and his pen.*

At this time of being *Orator*, he had learnt to understand the *Italian, Spanish, and French Tongues* very perfectly; hoping, that as his Predecessors, so he might in time attain the place of a *Secretary of State*, he being at that time very high in the King's favour; and not meanly valued and loved by the most eminent and most powerful of the Court Nobility: This, and the love of a Court-conversation mixed with a laudable ambition to be something more than he then was, drew him often from *Cambridge* to attend the King, wheresoever the Court was, who then gave him a *Sinecure*, which fell into his Majesty's disposal, I think, by the death of the Bishop of *St. Asaph*.—It was the same that Queen *Elizabeth* had formerly given to her Favourite Sir *Philip Sidney*; and valued to be worth a hundred and twenty pounds *per annum*. With this, and his Annuity, and the advantage of his College, and of his Oratorship, he enjoyed his genteel humour for clothes, and Court-like company, and seldom looked towards *Cambridge*, unless the King were there, but then he never failed; and, at other times, left the manage of his Orator's place to his learned friend Mr. *Herbert Thorndike*, who is now Prebendary of *Westminster*.

I may not omit to tell that he had often designed to leave the University, and decline all Study, which, he thought, did impair his health: for he had a body apt to a *Consumption*, and to *Fevers*, and other infirmities, which he judged were increased by his studies; for he would often say, "He had too thoughtful a Wit: a Wit, like a Pen-knife in too narrow a sheath, too sharp for his Body." But his Mother would by no means allow him to leave the University or to travel: and though he inclined very much to both, yet he would by no means satisfy his own desires at so dear a rate, as to prove an undutiful Son to so affectionate a Mother: but did always submit to her Wisdom.

In this time of Mr. *Herbert's* attendance and expectation of some good occasion to remove from *Cambridge* to Court, God, in whom there is an unseen Chain of Causes, did, in a short time, put an end to the lives of two of his most obliging and most powerful friends, *Lodowick Duke of Richmond*, and *James Marquis of Hamilton*; and not long after him, King *James* died also, and with them, all Mr. *Herbert's* Court hopes: so that he presently betook himself to a Retreat from *London*, to a friend in *Kent*, where he lived very privately, and was such a lover of solitariness, as was judged to impair his health more than his Study had done. In this time of Retirement, he had many Conflicts with himself whether he should return to the painted pleasures of a Court-life, or betake himself to a study of Divinity, and enter into Sacred Orders? (to which his dear Mother had often persuaded him)—These were such Conflicts, as they only can know, that have endured them; for ambitious Desires, and the outward Glory of this World, are not

easily laid aside; but, at last, God inclined him to put on a resolution to serve at his Altar.

About the year 1629, and the 34th of his Age, Mr. *Herbert* was seized with a sharp *Quotidian Ague*, and thought to remove it by the change of Air; to which end he went to *Woodford* in *Essex* but thither more chiefly to enjoy the company of his beloved Brother Sir *Henry Herbert*, and other Friends then of that Family. In his House he remained about Twelve Months, and there became his own Physician, and cured himself of his Ague, by forbearing Drink, and not eating any Meat, no not Mutton, nor a Hen or Pigeon, unless they were salted; and by such a constant Diet he removed his Ague, but with inconveniences that were worse; for he brought upon himself a disposition to Rheums and other weaknesses, and a supposed Consumption.

And now his care was to recover from his Consumption by a change from *Woodford* into such an air as was most proper to that end: and his remove was to *Dauntsey* in *Wiltshire*, a noble House which stands in a choice Air; And in this place, by a *spare Diet* declining all perplexing Studies, moderate exercise, and a cheerful conversation, his health was apparently improved to a good degree of strength and cheerfulness: And then he declared his resolution both to marry and to enter into the Sacred Orders of Priesthood.

I shall now proceed to his Marriage; in order to which, it will be convenient that I first give the Reader a short view of his person, and then an account of his Wife, and of some circumstances concerning both.

He was of his person of a stature inclining towards tallness; his Body was very straight; and so far from being cumbered with too much flesh, that he was lean to an extremity. His aspect was cheerful, and his speech and motion did both declare him a Gentleman; for they were all so meek and obliging, that they purchased love and respect from all that knew him.

These, and his other visible virtues begot him much love from a Gentleman, of a Noble fortune, and a near kinsman to his friend the Earl of *Danby*; namely, from Mr. *Charles Danvers* of *Bainton*, in the County of *Wilts*, Esq.; this Mr. *Danvers* having known him long, and familiarly, did so much affect him that he often and publicly declared a desire that Mr. *Herbert* would marry any of his Nine Daughters (for he had so many); but rather his Daughter *Jane* than any other, because *Jane* was his beloved Daughter: And he had often said the same to Mr. *Herbert* himself; and that if he could like her for a Wife and she him for a Husband, *Jane* should have a double blessing; and Mr. *Danvers* had so often said the like to *Jane*, and so much commended Mr. *Herbert* to her, that *Jane* became so much a Platonic, as to fall in love with Mr. *Herbert* unseen.

This was a fair preparation for a Marriage; but alas, her father died before Mr. *Herbert's* retirement to *Dauntsey*; yet some friends of both parties procured their meeting; at which time a mutual affection entered into both their hearts, as a Conqueror enters into a surprised City, and Love having got such possession,

governed and made there such Laws and Resolutions as neither party was able to resist; insomuch that she changed her name into *Herbert* the third day after this first interview.

This haste might in others be thought a Love-phrensy, or worse; but it was not, for they had wooed so like Princes, as to have select Proxies; such as were true friends to both parties; such as well understood Mr. *Herbert's* and her temper of mind, and also their Estates, so well before this Interview, that the suddenness was justifiable by the strictest Rules of prudence: And the more, because it proved so happy to both parties: For the eternal Lover of Mankind made them happy in each other's mutual and equal affections and compliance;

* * * * *

And at this time Mr. *Herbert* presented his Thanks to the Earl, for his presentation to [the living of] *Bemerton*, but had not yet resolved to accept it, and told him the reason why; but that Night the Earl acquainted Dr. *Laud*, then Bishop of *London*, and after Archbishop of *Canterbury*, with his Kinsman's irresolution. And the Bishop did the next day so convince Mr. *Herbert*, That the refusal of it was a sin, that a tailor was sent for to come speedily from *Salisbury* to *Wilton*, to take measure, and make him Canonical Clothes against next day; which the Tailor did: And Mr. *Herbert* being so habited, went with his presentation to the learned Dr. *Davenant*, who was then Bishop of *Salisbury*, and he gave him institution immediately (for Mr. *Herbert* had been made Deacon some years before); and he was also the same day (which was April 26, 1630) inducted into the good, and more pleasant than healthful Parsonage of *Bemerton*; which is a Mile from *Salisbury*.

I have now brought him to the Parsonage of Bemerton, and to the thirty-sixth Year of his Age, and must stop here, and bespeak the Reader to prepare for an almost incredible story of the great sanctity of the short remainder of his holy life; a life so full of Charity, Humility, and all Christian virtues, that it deserves the eloquence of St. Chrysostom to commend and declare it!

* * * * *

When at his Induction he was shut into *Bemerton* Church, being left there alone to Toll the Bell (as the Law requires him), he staid so much longer than an ordinary time before he returned to those Friends that staid expecting him at the Church-door, that his friend Mr. *Woodnot* looked in at the Church-window, and saw him lie prostrate on the ground before the Altar: at which time and place (as he after told Mr. *Woodnot*) he set some Rules to himself, for the future manage of his life; and then and there made a vow to labour to keep them.

* * * * *

The third day after he was made Rector of *Bemerton*, and had changed his sword and silk Clothes into a Canonical Coat; he returned so habited with his friend Mr. *Woodnot* to *Bainton*; and immediately after he had seen and saluted his wife, he said to her—*You are now a Minister's Wife, and must now so far forget your father's house, as not to claim a precedence of any of your Parishioners; for you are to know, that a Priest's Wife can challenge no precedence or place, but that which she purchases by her obliging humility: and I am sure places so purchased do best become them. And let me tell you, that I am so good a Herald as to assure you*

that this is truth. And she was so meek a Wife as to assure him that it was no vexing News to her, and that he should see her observe it with a cheerful willingness.

We will now, by the Reader's favour, suppose him fixed at Bemerton, and grant him to have seen the Church repaired, and the Chapel belonging to it very decently adorned, at his own great charge (which is a real Truth); and having now fixed him there, I shall proceed to give an account of the rest of his behaviour both to his Parishioners, and those many others that knew and conversed with him.

And that Mr. Herbert might the better preserve those holy Rules which such a Priest as he intended to be ought to observe; and that time might not insensibly blot them out of his memory, but that the next year might show him his variations from this year's resolutions; he, therefore, did set down his Rules, then resolved upon, in that order as the World now sees them printed in a little Book called *The Country Parson*.

A book so full of plain, prudent, and useful Rules, that that *Country Parson*, that can spare 12d. and yet wants it, is scarce excusable:

And to this I must add, that if he were at any time too zealous in his Sermons, it was reproving the indecencies of the people's behaviour in the time of Divine Service; and of those Ministers that huddled up the Church-prayers without a visible reverence and affection; namely, such as seemed to say the Lord's Prayer or Collect in a breath; but for himself, his custom was to stop betwixt every Collect, and give the people time to consider what they had prayed, and to force their desires affectionately to God before he engaged them into new Petitions.

And his constant public prayers did never make him to neglect his own private devotions, nor those prayers that he thought himself bound to perform with his Family, which always were a Set-form and not long; and he did always conclude them with that Collect which the Church hath appointed for the day or week.—Thus he made every day's sanctity a step towards that Kingdom where Impurity cannot enter.

His chiefest recreation was Music, in which heavenly Art he was a most excellent Master, and did himself compose many divine Hymns and Anthems, which he set and sung to his Lute or Viol: And though he was a lover of retiredness, yet his love to Music was such, that he went usually twice every week on certain appointed days, to the Cathedral Church in Salisbury; and at his return would say, *That his time spent in Prayer, and Cathedral Music, elevated his Soul, and was his Heaven upon Earth*. But before his return thence to Bemerton, he would usually sing and play his part at an appointed private Music-meeting; and, to justify this practice, he would often say, *Religion does not banish mirth, but only moderates and sets rules to it*.

And as his desire to enjoy his Heaven upon Earth drew him twice every week to Salisbury, so his walks thither were the occasion of many happy accidents to others, of which I will mention some few.

In this time of his decay he was often visited and prayed for by all the Clergy that lived near to him, especially by his friends the Bishop and Prebendaries of the Cathedral Church in *Salisbury*; but by none more devoutly than his Wife, his three Nieces (then a part of his Family), and Mr. *Woodnot*, who were the sad Witnesses of his daily decay; to whom he would often speak to this purpose: *I now look back upon the pleasures of my life past, and see the content I have taken in beauty, in wit, and music, and pleasant conversation, are now all past by me like a dream, or as a shadow that returns not, and are now all become dead to me, or I to them; and I see that as my father and generation hath done before me, so I also shall now suddenly (with Job) make my bed also in the dark; and I praise God I am prepared for it;*

Thus he lived, and thus he died like a saint, unspotted of the world, full of alms-deeds, full of humility, and all the examples of a virtuous life. * * * I wish (if God shall be so pleased) that I may be so happy as to die like him.

Iz. Wa.



THE SON

Let foreign nations of their language boast,
 What fine variety each tongue affords:
 I like our language, as our men and coast;
 Who cannot dress it well, want wit, not words.
 How neatly do we give one only name
 To Parent's issue and the Sun's bright Star!
 A Son is light and fruit; a fruitful flame
 Chasing the Father's dimness, carried far
 From the first man in the East, to fresh and new
 Western discoveries of posterity.
 So in one word our Lord's humility
 We turn upon him in a sense most true:

For what Christ once in humbleness began,
 We him in glory call, *The Son of Man*.

—George Herbert.

GIVING AND RECEIVING

Who of us has not been brought up in the belief that it is more blessed to give than to receive? And who has not had his moments of finding this a cold philosophy? Yet there are many who say that following out this preachment brings not only the blessing of a comfortable conscience and a glowing heart but tangible returns. Lovingkindness begets lovingkindness, and gratitude finds expression in real gifts. Generous thinking promotes nobler living and that gives birth to finer friendships. Unstinted service wins substantial response. Yes, it is quite true that blessings seen and unseen come in answer to the act of giving.

This is the Christmas season and a "Merry Christmas" belongs to every brave heart upon the earth. What he receives of love and love's expression is his to control, measurable only by the extent and nature of his giving.



"SOCIAL IDEALS"

A month's study of the "Social Ideals in English Letters" will have shown every C. L. S. C. reader that the book not only is rich in itself but that it suggests a wealth of opportunity for the studious. Lovers of old literature will win from "Piers the Plowman" and "Utopia" a delight quite apart from their bearings on the social aspects of their time. Swift looms large in any study of satirists. Students of character will read Dickens to find out the secret of the vitality of the caste of his well-nigh plotless novels, Thackeray to enjoy the combination of good workmanship with a genial outlook on society, and George Eliot to secure the presentation of living, searching problems. Carlyle the historian, Ruskin the artist, and Arnold the poet hint at possibilities for pleasant research not inferior to those offered by Carlyle and Ruskin and Arnold the sociologists. The reading of a few rugged chapters from "The French Revolution," a bit of intelligent description from "The Seven Lamps of Architecture," some lines of grave beauty from Arnold's poems will broaden the reader's appreciation of the man's power and grasp while it adds incalculably to the enjoyment of the volume on "Social Ideals."

SPECIAL PROGRAM FOR MILTON DAY, DECEMBER 9

Use Travel Club, Fourth Week Program in the November number, adding number 6 of the Third Week Program.

W. FRANK MC CLURE

W. Frank McClure for the past twelve years has been a contributor to leading magazines and newspapers throughout the United States. He has made a specialty of industrial and sociological subjects, and his articles along these lines have long been recognized as authoritative.

Mr. McClure's home is at Ashtabula, in the old Western Reserve of Ohio, and in his writings he has aimed to cover chiefly the territory of the Middle West—a section of the United States rich in industrial and sociological studies but one in which syndicate and magazine writers are much less plentiful than in the East.

Beginning his work as a reporter of an Ashtabula, Ohio, paper, Mr. McClure became the editor of a new daily in the same city. Later he was employed at different times on the reportorial staff of two Cleveland newspapers, following which he launched into syndicate newspaper writing, syndicating and illustrating his own articles which appeared simultaneously in the papers of several of the large cities. His work in the magazines began soon after.

Mr. McClure is one of the associate editors of the new Western Reserve History soon to be published in three volumes.

THE ASSEMBLY AT ASHLAND, OREGON

The pictures of the Ashland Assembly grounds shown in this number give an admirable idea of the variety and beauty of Oregon scenery to be found near this fortunately placed park. A beautiful creek runs through the grove, and the outlook upon the mountains is wide, while the neatness and beauty of the surroundings are always kept up to the mark through the efforts of the ladies of the Chautauque Improvement Club of Ashland.



Mrs. Julia Ward Howe. See Highways and Byways



Main Entrance to the Ashland (Oregon) Assembly Grounds



Flowers in Chautauqua Grove, Ashland, Oregon

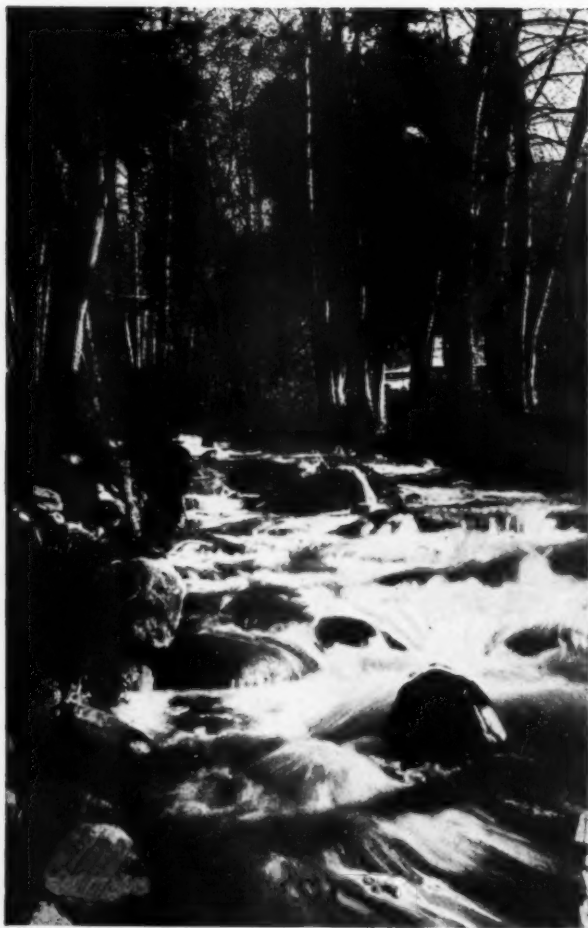


Chautauqua Building, Ashland, Ore.

The Chautauqua Building, Ashland, Oregon



View from the Chautauqua Building, Ashland, Oregon



Ashland (Oregon) Creek, Chautauqua Grove



Grove, Ashland (Oregon) Assembly Grounds



Chautauqua Grove, Ashland, Oregon



Tents in Chautauqua Grove, Ashland, Oregon

ABBY MERCHANT

It is clear from the firm touch with which Miss Merchant draws her picture of New York's unemployed that she knows these waifs of the great city not only as picturesque "copy," but with insight into the economic reasons for their condition. Miss Merchant has had what she terms "a dash of settlement work," like so many of the thoughtful young women writers of the day, as a background for her vocation, which has placed her on the editorial staffs of *Munsey's*, *The Craftsman*, and *Street and Smith's*.



WHAT 1911 DECIDED

The Class of 1911 held a number of its enjoyable teas again last summer and while "knapping" ginger transacted important business.

All members who were present in 1910 pledged themselves to go through the arches in 1911 unless anything untoward prevented their so doing; they also resolved to put forth every effort to collect funds to meet the voluntary class expenses, such as the buying of the banner and the contribution toward the upkeep of Alumni Hall. Moreover they decided that during the current year each one would select a character from Dickens that he would study to impersonate at a Dickens Party to be given in honor of the Dickens Class in 1911. Mrs. Margaret Jackman was elected Treasurer vice Mrs. Bouton, Mrs. Russell's appointment as "Assistant Treasurer" was ratified, Mrs. Hart was made Second Assistant Treasurer, Miss Merington was elected Trustee. The other holders of office elected in 1907 were confirmed in their positions.

Resolutions of regret were passed and sent to Mrs. Martin on the death of her husband, Mr. Martin, who was of the Class of 1911. Similar resolutions were sent to Miss Ada Falley (1911) on the death of her mother.

Thanks to the good class spirit of so many of the members of 1911 the class fund is in a promising condition, but

there are many members who have not sent in a contribution. The Treasurer will receive with pleasure any amount from 50 cents to \$5.00—or over—according to the ability of the giver. In the interest of class spirit and that there may be a headquarters at the *alma mater*, all classes during their undergraduate years make a voluntary contribution toward the care of Alumni Hall in which each has a share in a room which is used for class gatherings.



C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.



OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR JANUARY

FIRST WEEK—JANUARY 1-8

"The Social Ideal and George Eliot" (Scudder, Part II, Chapters V and VI).

SECOND WEEK—JANUARY 8-15

"The Social Note in America and England in the Nineteenth Century" (Scudder, Part II, Chapters VII-X).

"The Problem of the Unemployed" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Democratic England," IV).

THIRD WEEK—JANUARY 15-22

"Democracy and Authority" (Scudder, Part II, Chapters XI, and XII).

"Addison's London" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Reading Journey in London," IV.)

FOURTH WEEK—JANUARY 22-29

"Contemporary England" (Scudder, Conclusion).

"Salisbury" (THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "English Cathedrals," IV).

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

FIRST WEEK—JANUARY 1-8

1. *Story*. "George Eliot's Life" (Cross's "Life of George Eliot").
2. *Paper*. "The Growth of George Eliot's Social Feeling" (Study in order of their writing "Scenes of Clerical Life," "Adam Bede," "The Mill on the Floss," "Silas Marner," "Felix Holt," "Middlemarch," "Daniel Deronda.").
3. *Reading*. "How Lisa Loved the King."
4. *Book Review*. Meredith's "Beauchamp's Career."
5. *Character Sketch*. Hardy's "Tess."
6. *Paper*. "Novelists of Industrialism" (Charles Reade, Mrs. Gaskell, Charlotte Brontë, George Macdonald, Charles Kingsley).

SECOND WEEK—JANUARY 8-15

1. *Paper*. "The New England Group" (K. L. Bates's "American Literature").
2. *Discussion*. "Carlyle as a Social Prophet." This may be studied under the following heads: 1. Carlyle's Indictment of Society including (a) his estimate and analysis of social classes; their characteristics and defects; and (b) his general indictment of modern life and modern ideals. 2. Carlyle's views on Liberty; on Democracy. 3. Carlyle's Hope for Social Reconstruction; (a) general; (b) specific. ("Past and Present;" "Latter Day Pamphlets;" "Heroes and Hero Worship;" Essays on Carlyle by Mazzini and John Morley).
3. *Reading*. Mrs. Browning's "The Cry of the Children."
4. *Roll Call*. Ruskin's "Socialistic and Anti-Socialistic Expressions."
5. *Paper*, with illustrative readings. Matthew Arnold's "Personality and Attitude as Shown in his Poems" (Read "To a Republican Friend," "East London," "West London," "Dover Beach," "Revolutions," "The Future," "Heine's Grave," "Stanza from the Grand Chartreuse," "Obermann Once More").
6. *Comparison*. "The Problem of the Unemployed" as shown in Mr. Alden's, Mr. McClure's and Miss Merchant's articles in this number, and in contemporary newspaper and magazine articles.

THIRD WEEK—JANUARY 15-22

1. *Debate*. "Democracy versus Authority" (Scudder's "Social Ideals in English Letters," Part II, Chapters XI and XII).
2. *Illustrative Readings* from the diarists, Pepys and Evelyn (Warner Library).
3. *Roll Call*. "The Reign of Queen Anne" (Jenks's "Parliamentary England," Burton's "History of the Reign of Queen Anne;" Morris's "The Age of Anne;" Lecky's "England in the Eighteenth Century;" Ashton's "Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne").
4. *Book Review*. Thackeray's "Henry Esmond."
5. *Paper*. "The Rise of Periodical Literature with Addison and Steele" (Courthope's "Life of Addison," Thackeray's "English Humorists;" Macaulay's essay on "Addison;" Dobson's "Life of Steele." Thackeray introduces Addison and Steele in "Henry Esmond").
6. *Summary*. "The Spectator" on the "Frivolity of Women" (see papers in "The Spectator").
7. *Readings* from "The Sir Roger de Coverley Papers."

FOURTH WEEK—JANUARY 22-29

1. *Review* of the Conclusion, Scudder's "Social Ideals in English Letters."
2. *Paper*. "The Social Note in Contemporary Fiction" (see novels by Howells, Hall Caine, Mrs. Humphry Ward, etc.).
3. *Readings* from the "Fabian Essays."
4. *Book Reviews*. Spargo's "Socialism" (for socialism); Mackay's "A Plea for Liberty" (against socialism).
5. *Talk*. "William Dean Howells and England" (see Mr. Howells's "Certain Delightful English Towns," "London Films," "Seven English Cities," etc.).
6. *Composite Story*. "Old and New Sarum" (see Miss Kimball's article on "Salisbury" in the series on "English Cathedrals" in this number, and consult the bibliography accompanying it).
7. *Reading* from Izaak Walton's "Life of George Herbert" in the Library Shelf of this number.



TRAVEL CLUB

FIRST WEEK

1. *Paper*. "The Glorious Revolution of 1688" (Joy's "Twenty Centuries of English History;" Jenks's "Parliamentary England;" Macaulay's "History of England;" Hallam's "Constitutional History of England;" Traill's "Life of William III").
2. *Song*. "Bonnie Dundee."
3. *Story*. "Glencoe and Killiecrankie" (Mackintosh's "History of Scotland" in Story of Nations series; Scott's "On the Massacre of Glencoe;" Morris's "Claverhouse").
4. *Reading*. Wordsworth's "In the Pass of Killiecrankie," and Aytoun's "The Widow of Glencoe."
5. *Contest*. "War with France." One side describes the war in Europe, the other "King William's War" in America. Decision to be on amount of material and on interest (Traill's "William III;" Coman and Kendall's "A Short History of England," and histories of the United States by Doyle, Bancroft, McMaster, etc.).
6. *Reading*. Dryden's "Memorial Ode on Mistress Anne Killigrew."

SECOND WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. "Reign of Queen Anne" (Jenks; Mackintosh; Joy; Burton's "History of the Reign of Queen Anne;" Morris's "The Age of Anne").
2. *Story*. "The Queen's Favorites" (Wolseley's "The Life of John Churchill;" Saintsbury's "Marlborough;" Ashton's "Social Life in the Reign of Queen Anne;" Lecky's "England in the Eighteenth Century").
3. *Reading* from Southey's "Blenheim" and Addison's "The Campaign."
4. *Paper*. "Literature in the Reign of Queen Anne" (Lecky; Sidney's "England in the Eighteenth Century;" also in encyclopedias and in histories of English literature [as Morley and Taine] accounts of Pope, Locke, Philips, Addison, Steele, Parnell, Tickell, Prior, Gay, Rowe, Congreve, etc.).
5. *Reading*. From Swift's "Gulliver's Travels."

THIRD WEEK

1. *Map Exercise*, giving the location of all places mentioned in "The London of Pepys and Addison" (Baedeker).
2. *Paper*. "Old London Coffee-Houses" (Baker's "Stories of the Streets of London;" Timbs's "Clubs and Club Life in London;" Jarvis's "Old London Coffee-Houses" in English Illustrated Magazine, vol. 23; Hare's "Walks in London;" Hughson's "Walks through London;" Halton's "New View of London;" Lecky's "England in the Eighteenth Century").
3. *Book Review*. Thackeray's "Henry Esmond."
4. *Talk*. "The Strand, Covent Garden and Lincoln's Inn Fields" (Lucas's "A Wanderer in London;" Baedeker).
5. *Reading*. Addison's "The Vision of Mirza."

FOURTH WEEK

1. *Roll Call*. Extracts from the "Tatler" and the "Spectator."
2. *Paper*. "The Rise of Periodical Literature with Addison and Steele" (Courthope's "Life of Addison;" Thackeray's "English Humorists;" Macaulay's essay on "Addison;" Dobson's "Life of Steele;" Thackeray introduces Addison and Steele in "Henry Esmond").
3. *Reading*. Extracts from Sir Roger de Coverley papers.
4. *Talk*. "The Spectator" on "The Frivolity of Women" (see papers in "The Spectator").
5. *Illustrative Readings* from the diarists, Pepys and Evelyn (Warner Library).
6. *Papers*. "Defoe and the Early English Novel" (Raleigh's "The English Novel;" Stoddard's "Evolution of the English Novel;" Cross's "The English Novel;" Minto's "Life of Defoe;" Leslie Stephen's "Hours in a Library;" Mrs. Oliphant's "Historical Characters of the Reign of Queen Anne").



HISTORICAL FICTION

William and Mary. The King's Highway, G. P. R. James.
 Times of Queen Anne. St. James's; The South Sea Bubble;
 John Law; all by Ainsworth. Henry Esmond, Thackeray. The
 Old Chelsea Bunhouse, Miss Manning. The Maiden's Lodge, Emily
 S. Holt. Devereux, Bulwer.

Dutch Wars. Memoirs of an English Officer, Defoe.
 Marlborough's Wars. The Cornet of Horse, Henty.



REVIEW AND SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS

DEMOCRATIC ENGLAND. CHAPTER IV. THE PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED

1. To what defect in the social system does the problem of unemployment point? 2. Illustrate by Japan's and Denmark's experience the use that may be made of the land to remedy the evil of unemployment. 3. What are the causes of the growth of the problem? 4. What has been the change of public opinion regarding the unemployed? The unemployables? 5. Discuss casualness of labor; mobility of labor. 6. Describe the working of the Labor Exchange Act. 7. What similar attempts had been made previously? 8. Of what help is the Exchange to various methods of

dealing with unemployment? 9. Discuss insurance against unemployment. 10. Explain the Poor Law. 11. Describe municipal relief works. 12. What is the New Zealand Coöperative Gang system? 13. What methods are urged in the Poor Law Commission Reports? 14. What suggestion is offered by the Minority Report? 15. What public works have been suggested as suitable to occupy the unemployed? 16. Speak of Labor Colonies. 17. What is said of land monopoly? 18. What special features of the problem of unemployment are undertaken by each of the Boards in charge? 19. What arrangement does the author prefer?

ENGLISH CATHEDRALS. CHAPTER IV. SALISBURY

1. What gives to Stonehenge its unique interest? 2. What association had Addison with this part of the country? 3. What events stand out in the history of Salisbury? 4. By what early name was Old Sarum known? 5. What discoveries have been made there recently? 6. What strange conditions were ended by the Reform Bill? 7. What service did Osmund render to the Church of England? 8. What other Bishops were prominent at Old Sarum? 9. What led to the removal of the Cathedral from Old Sarum? 10. How was the spot for the new Cathedral selected? 11. What was the character of the region? 12. What remains of the old Cathedral may be found in Salisbury? 13. What peculiarly English setting has the present Cathedral? 14. In what striking respects is Salisbury different from other English Cathedrals? 15. Describe its exterior. 16. How and why has the west front been criticized? 17. What did the west front mean to the people of the 18th Century? 18. What is the general appearance of the interior? 19. When was it begun and when consecrated? 20. What King was present at its consecration and why was he particularly interested in this church? 21. In what respects do Salisbury and Westminster differ? 22. What are some of the noticeable features of the interior of Salisbury? 23. What misfortunes has it suffered?

A READING JOURNEY IN LONDON. CHAPTER IV. THE LONDON OF PEPYS AND ADDISON

1. What was London's condition in 1660? What is Pepys's distinction? 3. What was the attitude of the Londoner of the time toward the country? 4. What contrasts filled London? 5. What were some of the "modern improvements" noted by Pepys? 6. What was the dress adopted by Charles? 7. What table customs prevailed? 8. What hint is given of the manners of the day? 9. What instances are given of the spirit of destructiveness in both Cavaliers and Roundheads? 10. What likeness was there between the spirit of 1600 and that of 1650? 11. What new conditions were shown in the re-opening of the theaters? 12. Who were the chief dramatists of the day? 13. What change of moral tone was reflected in Addison? 14. What other "moralistic" writers became eminent? 15. What social rewards were achieved by men of letters of this period? 16. On what themes did Addison write? 17. Account for the popularity of the coffee-houses. 18. What topics were discussed at the chief coffee-houses? 19. Speak of Wren's work in London after the fire.

SEARCH QUESTIONS ON JANUARY READINGS

1. For what is Bishop Robert Hallam of Salisbury worthy to be remembered? 2. Who were the "Boy Bishops?" 3. What is the legend of Salisbury's pillars, windows, and doorways? 4. Who was Sir G. Gilbert Scott? 5. What American called Salisbury "a blonde beauty among churches?" 6. Who said "Salisbury is all-glorious without, Westminster is all-glorious within?" 7. How does Salisbury's spire compare with that of Amiens? 8. Why has Salisbury an apparent advantage in height? 9. Who wrote

"Pile of Stongehenge! so proud to hint,
Yet keep
Thy secrets."

1. Who was Thomas Shadwell? 2. What was Samuel Butler's best known work? 3. What was Will's Coffee-house? 4. Why were the young roughs of the time called Mohocks? 5. Who was Etherege? 6. What were the chief plays of Dryden? 7. For what is Wycherley known? 8. Congreve? 9. Vanbrugh? 10. Farquhar? 11. When did Jeremy Collier thrive?

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON DECEMBER READINGS

1. "Alton Locke" and "Yeast."

1. The Parliament which met in 1640 and which carried on the Civil War was called the Long Parliament. In 1648 a Parliamentary officer, Thomas Pride, excluded from the House of Commons all the members favorable to Charles I, and after this "Pride's Purge" what was left of the Parliament was called the Rump. 2. "Lycidas." 3. "Every Man in his Humour." 4. Henry Lawes. 5. "Inner" because it is within the precincts of the City; "Temple" because it once belonged to the Knights Templars of the Holy Sepulcher. 6. Strafford. 7. Paul Delaroche. It is in the Museum at Nimes, France. 8. Gauden, Bishop of Exeter. "Royal Portrait." The sufferings of Charles I.

1. Westminster Hall, begun by William Rufus and attached to the Old Palace, largely destroyed by fire in 1291, was rebuilt and enlarged at various times, and today forms a vestibule to the present House of Commons. The Law Courts were held here, Charles I condemned, and Warren Hastings tried. 2. For ten years from 1540 Westminster was made the See of a Bishop, under Henry VIII. Edward VI abolished the episcopate and the Abbey was merged in the See of London for a short season. At this time the estates of the Abbey were drawn upon to help out London, hence the proverb "Robbing Peter to pay Paul." 3. His press was set up at the Almonry within the precincts of the Abbey. 4. In the Pyx Chapel, opening out of the East Cloister, the current coinage was tested by the standards kept in a box called the Pyx from the Greek for box. This was called "the trial of the Pyx." 5. Queen Elizabeth, 1560. Of 40 Foundationers or Queen's Scholars, and about 180 Oppidans or Town Boys. 6. Edward V in 1470. Because his mother sought protection in the sanctuary at that time. 7. Edmund Crouchback, second son of Henry III. 8. Probably named from its wall tapestries. Many rooms in the Old Palace of Westminster had similar fanciful names. 9. J. Armitage Robinson.

NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"In spite of all the counter-attractions of New York City," began Pendragon as the members drew their chairs around the Table, "the C. L. S. C. holds its own there." "It is one of the attractions of the huge place," said a New Yorker, "that, no matter what you are interested in you can find other people with the same interests." "All the books and magazines have reached me," said another Gothamite, "and I wish to express my delight in studying and reading the course. It is most instructive and interesting." "Massachusetts people agree with you," said a delegate from the suburbs of Boston. "I consider the reading course very valuable and I should renew my subscription if I were to remain in America." "You'll find it useful wherever you are," contributed a seasoned globe-trotter. "I have read it for years and I have enjoyed my traveling vastly more than I should otherwise because of the preparation from my reading. I always take the books with me, too." "The reading is a capital preparation for many different activities," added a western girl. "I expect to take a special course in the University of California next year, as a result of my Chautauqua work."

"I began my reading in the first year of my married life," said a young matron. "My baby has taken most of my time since his coming and in mothering him myself I have not entered largely into the social life around us. My husband is in the legal profession and the early part of my evenings are spent alone. The baby is soon asleep and my evenings are devoted to my Reading Course and are thus made a pleasure to be looked forward to when otherwise I should find them intolerable. I believe that my four years' work will make a bigger man of my little son morally, intellectually, and physically." "I don't doubt it," returned Pendragon. "It is a broadening influence in the lives of all of us. I was greatly interested," he continued, "in a letter that I received after the last Continental European year. It was from a man who evidently had thought that the best of Europe was represented by the immigrants he had seen on this side of the water, and he remarked in all sincerity that his studies had been to him a real revelation for which he was most grateful." "I'm afraid we Americans too often thing we are 'the whole thing,'" remarked a breezy delegate. "In some respects we are," retorted a suburban New Yorker. "'The most American thing in America,' is ex-President Roosevelt's characterization of Chautauqua. It is pleasant to reflect that Mount Vernon has for eighteen years had a bit of this 'most American thing,' in one of the many circles which spring from the great center on Chautauqua Lake."

"Eighteen years!" ejaculated an Indianian. "We are mere kittens beside you for we have just started our circle as an outgrowth of the recent Chautauqua." "We have just organized, too," said a Pennsylvanian. "About a dozen of us have come to realize that there is little profit in the desultory reading of books, but systematic reading of good authors is most helpful." "Everybody does sooner or later," commented Pendragon, "and just as soon as the realization comes a new life opens." "That is quite true," confirmed one of the enthusiasts who make Des Moines famous as a C. L. S. C. center. "We of the Chautauqua Union have renewed our work this year with delight. At our opening meeting we had not only some charming descriptive chat from a returned traveller, but a delightful talk from an English visitor to our city." "How fortunate!" exclaimed a representative of the Seaside Circle of Belfast, Maine. "Even without an English cousin we enjoyed our opening meeting," she went on. "It is always a joy to renew the old ties and feel again the unity of the old yet ever new work." "Our study classes are reopening under attractive circumstances," said the member from Waterloo, Iowa. "This is the first time that the meetings have been held in the new library and it is believed that the new plan will attract added interest and insure an increased attendance." "It sounds like a profitable change," approved Pendragon. "The opening meetings are always interesting in their promise for the year," said the Winonan. "There was a large attendance at the beginning of the Winona-Warsaw Circle. The Club enjoys the distinction of having not only many fine speakers but many fine listeners."

"Des Moines to the fore again," said the Iowan after the laughter had subsided. "I want to tell you about the program for the coming year of the Chautauqua Union. We meet once a month, you know, a different circle being the hostess each time, and our meetings are supplementary to the study meetings of the separate circles. For instance in November we looked at and into 'Morris Dances,' and in December we are to have the 'Christmas Carol' as our subject, and that, you see, touches on Dickens as well as on English Ballads. In February we are to have a patriotic gathering and in March a Dickens character party." "What a good time you are going to have," exclaimed the Ohioan from Zanesville. "We have our year planned ahead, too, though naturally we follow the study course more closely as we are an active circle. We are going to make ourselves familiar with a great deal of fine literature through our roll calls. They are going to be drawn from Chaucer and Milton and Shakespeare and George Eliot and Dickens and

Johnson and Carlyle and Byron." "And when the year is done you will have a vast number of quotations stowed away," said Pendragon. "We think so. Then we have a discussion of current events at every meeting, and we are going to do the Cathedrals and the 'Reading Journey in London' pretty thoroughly."

"I want to tell you something of the activities of the Greater Medford Club," said the Oregonian. "We are interested in the Ashland Chautauqua, which is not far from us, and we also have succeeded in getting together enough books for a considerable library. As yet we have no library building but house our treasures in a room in the City Hall. We alternate our efforts between our park and the library." "Both community blessings," said Pendragon as the Table rose.

Talk About Books

WRITTEN ENGLISH, A GUIDE TO THE RULES OF COMPOSITION. By John Erskine, associate professor of English, Columbia University, and Helen Erskine. 70 pp. New York: The Century Company. 1910.

"Written English" is only a small volume but contains much that is useful to the amanuensis. Chapters deal with general rules of spelling, syllabification, the use of capitals, diction, grammatical terms, and the arrangement of thought in the sentence. Punctuation, the paragraph, arrangement and correction of manuscript with proof readers' signs, as well as a chapter on business and friendly letters, formal invitations and replies, make up a practical guide book.

IN UNFAMILIAR ENGLAND. By Thomas D. Murphy. 16 illustrations in color, 48 duogravures, and maps. 403 pp., decorated cloth, gilt top. Price (boxed) \$3.00. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. 1910. A handsome volume attractively boxed for gift purposes strikingly bound and appealing to the eye especially on account of the illustrations in color. There are 16 of these, reproduced from original paintings by British artists, made for the author, supplemented by 48 duogravures reproduced from excellent English photographs. The volume is "A record of the seven-thousand mile tour by motor of the unfrequented nooks and corners, and the shrines of especial interest, in England; with incursions into Scotland and Ireland." There are maps of England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, showing the routes covered by motor. The author has previously published a similar volume called "British Highways and Byways from a Motor Car." Such a volume is an attractive reminder of the in-

teresting points covered. The style of writing is hardly more than the transcript of a personal note book and could have been edited to the advantage of the reader. It is, however, an interesting scrap book of travel, unusually beautified. To this reviewer the notes on the Washington Country together with the reproductions of Sherrin's paintings of Sulgrave Church and Village and Sulgrave Manor, the cradle of the Washingtons, are especially interesting.

STORIES FROM OLD CHRONICLES. Kate Stephens. 375 pp. 12 mo. \$1.50. New York: Sturgis & Walton Company.

A volume of edited selections from old English black-letter chronicles otherwise not easily available, prepared especially for readers of younger years. Introductions and footnotes are supplied to give historical setting, interpretation and explanation of story and text. The selections are grouped chronologically so far as possible beginning with "King Lear and His Three Daughters" and closing with "What Befell Two Princes in London Tower." "The Story of the People's March to London and of Wat Tyler," dealing with conditions in England after the Black Death, for instance, will be of special interest to C. L. S. C. readers of "A Reading Journey in London" this year.

HERO MYTHS AND LEGENDS OF THE BRITISH RACE. By M. I. Ebbutt, M. A. 8vo, cloth; 416 pages, 64 illustrations. \$2.00 net; postage, 15 cents.

A charming collection of great stories which illustrate the national characteristics of the British race and illumine its history. The author has succeeded in his aim of finding and representing the ideal hero as the mind of early Britain imagined him, together with the study of the characteristics which made this or that particular person, mythical or legendary, a hero to the century which sang or wrote about him. The list comprises: Beowulf; The Dream of Maxen Wledig; The Story of Constantine and Elene; The Compassion of Constantine; Havelok the Dane; Howard the Halt; Roland, the Hero of Early France; The Countess Cathleen; Cuchulain, the Champion of Ireland; The Tale of Gamelyn; William of Cloudelee; Black Colin of Loch Awe; The Marriage of Sir Gawayne; King Horn; Robin Hood; and Hereward the Wake. The versions possess distinction of style, the full page illustrations are notable, the volume is well indexed.

PATRICIA. By Emilia Elliott. Philadelphia, George W. Jacobs & Co. \$1.00.

Granting that a rather precocious vocabulary is possible to an eleven-year-old, Patricia, who gives her name to a set of four charming sketches by Emilia Elliott, is a "probable" child and altogether lovable in print. In real life her prototype might be a trifle trying to her

caretakers. Custard, a sympathetic curly black stray, is an able second to his little mistress, and the tales of adventures which they shared make delightful reading to grown-ups who love children.

VOCATIONS FOR THE TRAINED WOMAN. Opportunities other than Teaching. Introductory Papers edited by Agnes F. Perkins, A. M., Wellesley College. Published by Department of Research, Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston. Cloth \$1.20, postage 16 cents; paper 60 cents, postage 12 cents.

Readers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for June, 1910, will recall that much of the recent work of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae has been directed toward a study of vocational opportunities other than teaching suitable and open for the college trained woman. The results of inquiry among graduates was such as to lead the investigators to a conviction that the teaching profession was so over-crowded that women in it were not earning salaries making for their best economic efficiency. That college women should be made acquainted with other occupations suitable to their equipment is to be among the further efforts of the Association. For practically the same purpose, the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston has published a volume, edited by Professor Agnes F. Perkins of Wellesley College, which "is the outgrowth of a conviction that many women who are unfitted for teaching drift into it because it is the vocation with which they are most familiar; that the teaching which results is injurious to both teacher and pupil; that many who make poor teachers might become able workers if wisely guided into other fields."

The book is a collection of articles by specialists, and each contributor was asked to cover "the nature of the work, the training necessary or desirable, the opportunities or compensation, maximum, minimum, and average."

Occupations easily investigated by personal research have not been entered, but less known work has been discussed under the general headings of Social and Economic Service, Scientific Work, Domestic Science and Arts, Agriculture, Business, Clerical and Secretarial Work, Literary Work, Art, and Special Forms of Teaching. The modern developments of civic and social service seem to give the greatest variety of employment, including as they do probation and juvenile court work, work in playgrounds and settlements, incursions into medicine with hospital social service, and into industrialism with "welfare" activities. For the student there are new openings in museums and in chemistry and biology; for the outdoor girl the traditional activities of the farmer's wife are now scientifically applied; for the woman who must express herself in line and color there are commercial opportunities. The age-old occupations of

housekeeper and seamstress have expanded into many specializations for executive ability. The business world now offers place to the educated woman in many commercial departments. Literary work nowadays is not wholly a labor of love, and for the woman who must and will teach there are chances in the special forms for which new knowledge and new needs call upon a broadening pedagogy.

As a compendium of life experiences as well as of suggestions this volume is an inspiring record, and as such, as well as for its practical usefulness, it has been reviewed at length.

A HISTORY OF EDUCATION DURING THE MIDDLE AGES AND THE TRANSITION TO MODERN TIMES. Frank Pierrepont Graves, Ph. D.
New York: The Macmillan Company. Price \$1.10 net.

To one who has come to consider the history of education a dry and hackneyed theme, Mr. Graves's work, "A History of Education," will bring renewed and vital interest in the subject. It is a live, readable book, carefully planned and well written.

There are summaries of paragraphs in marginal notes, with valuable footnotes, and ample and suggestive lists for supplementary reading on sources and authorities.

The author's point of view of the educational process, as in his earlier volume, is the development of individualism. He works out this idea with wisely selected historical matter which furnishes a background, and an impulse for the educational movement.

Part I opens with a consideration of the problem of the mediaeval period, a time of "assimilation and repression." There follows a discussion of the monastic system, and the growth of education through the reigns of Charlemagne and Alfred to the absorption of Greek culture by Moslemism. The educational tendencies of mysticism, scholasticism, feudalism, and chivalry, together with the work of the Friars, are then successively treated. With the rise and organization of the mediaeval universities, and the development of cities and new schools, we come to the "passing of the Middle Ages."

"The Transition to Modern Times," the title of Part II., includes a view of the renaissance and the rise of humanism, the work of the humanists in Italy and in the North, the influences of the Protestant Reformation, the teachings of the Catholics, the beginnings and development of realistic education, Puritanism, pietism, and rationalism. The book closes with a brief survey of the progress of education before modern times, and a prophesy of the modern spirit.

The cause of pedagogy must be refreshed and advanced by this addition to its literature.

LIFE IN THE ROMAN WORLD OF NERO AND ST. PAUL. By T. G. Tucker. New York: The Macmillan Company. \$2.50 net.

"Of making many books there is no end," and the student of ancient history can be glad of it when the impulse leads to the production of a volume so valuable and so full of interest as "Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul" which T. G. Tucker has prepared as a companion to his "Life in Ancient Athens." The book is laid out after much the same plan as that pursued by the author of "Social Life at Rome in the Age of Cicero," used in the last C. L. S. C. Classical Year. Its survey, however, is not limited to the city of Rome, but covers the whole Roman world. The author's effort has been to give an impartial account of the period, keeping a just balance between the information to be acquired from "The Acts of the Apostles" and from manuals of history. Prof. Tucker scrutinizes the Empire in various aspects. Its extent, its provinces, its social system, its governmental administration—each receives a chapter's attention. With a prefatory account of Nero, he then turns to Rome and describes the material appearance of the city, the housing, amusements, and employments of different classes of its inhabitants.

A style of unusual simplicity and liveliness adds charm to the presentation of a wealth of material obtainable only by a scholar who had spent his life browsing the literature of the time he presents. It is not often that so happy a combination exists as that found in Prof. Tucker's works.

THE FIGHT FOR CONSERVATION. By Gifford Pinchot. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. 60 cents net.

In a small volume which details the necessity and the importance of "The Fight for Conservation," with some account of what has been done, Hon. Gifford Pinchot sets forth a series of arguments convincing to all who are not constitutionally opposed to conviction. The fallacy of the American's belief that the natural resources of his country are inexhaustible, while at the same time he is doing his utmost to destroy them, is presented in a pertinent chapter on Prosperity. The value to the country of the farmers who are "the backbone of the nation," is indisputable, and all conservation which helps to the greater productiveness of farms now under cultivation, to the bringing to a profitable state through irrigation of land otherwise useless, accomplishes with almost equal directness that home-making which achieves the happiness and uplift of the family as much as their material prosperity.

The history of conservation from its beginning with forestry is a short story. The principles of conservation, of development, of use without waste, and of development and use for the common

good—are told at greater length for they affect both the business and the moral aspects of society. Mr. Pinchot's appeal is made to people of varied interests. Only the selfish can listen to it unheeding.

THE MAN WITHOUT A COUNTRY AND OTHER STORIES. Edward Everett Hale. Edited with introduction and notes by Samuel Marion Tucker, Ph. D., Head of the English Department of Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Florida. The Macmillan Company, New York. Price 25 cents net.

Of the many school editions of Mr. Hale's great lesson in patriotism, this recent addition to the *Macmillan Pocket Classics* is by no means the least adapted to the use of young readers. Only an editor who has had experience in the class room, and knows what sort of material vitalizes all work in the teaching of English could have selected and presented the matter found in this little volume. The "Other Stories" have been chosen as typical of the best that Mr. Hale has written.

The biographical sketch is a remarkable epitome of a great life. Following this is an exposition of the character and development of the short story in America, with a brief reference to the work done in France and in England. The introduction closes with most interesting critiques of the stories contained in the book.

There is just enough annotation to furnish not only the school boy and girl, but also the average reader with the information necessary to a clear understanding of the text.

Such a well considered interpretation of a familiar classic merits strong approval and widespread circulation.

ONE HUNDRED POPULAR PICTURES IN COLOR. Parts I, II, III. Each 25c. New York: Cassell and Company.

A portfolio plan of presenting "100 Popular Pictures: Facsimile Reproductions in Colour of Popular Pictures Selected from the World's Great Galleries, with an Introduction by M. H. Spielmann, F. S. A., and Notes by Arthur Fish." Four subjects are included in each part, the entire collection to consist of 25 parts. This publication gives evidence of progress in color reproductions at a low price and the quality of the selections is shown by these subjects: Part I, Gainsborough's Mrs. Siddons, Millet's The Gleaners, Millais' The Knight Errant, Bonheur's The Horse Fair; Part II, Landseer's Dignity and Impudence, Burne-Jones's The Golden Stairs, Boughton's The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers, Charlton's Balaclava; Part III, Greuze's The Broken Pitcher, Calderon's Renunciation, Walker's The Harbour of Refuge, Dicksee's The Children of Charles I.

LITTLE SONGS FOR TWO. Edmund Vance Cooke. New York. The Dodge Publishing Co. Cloth, \$1.00; leather, \$1.50.

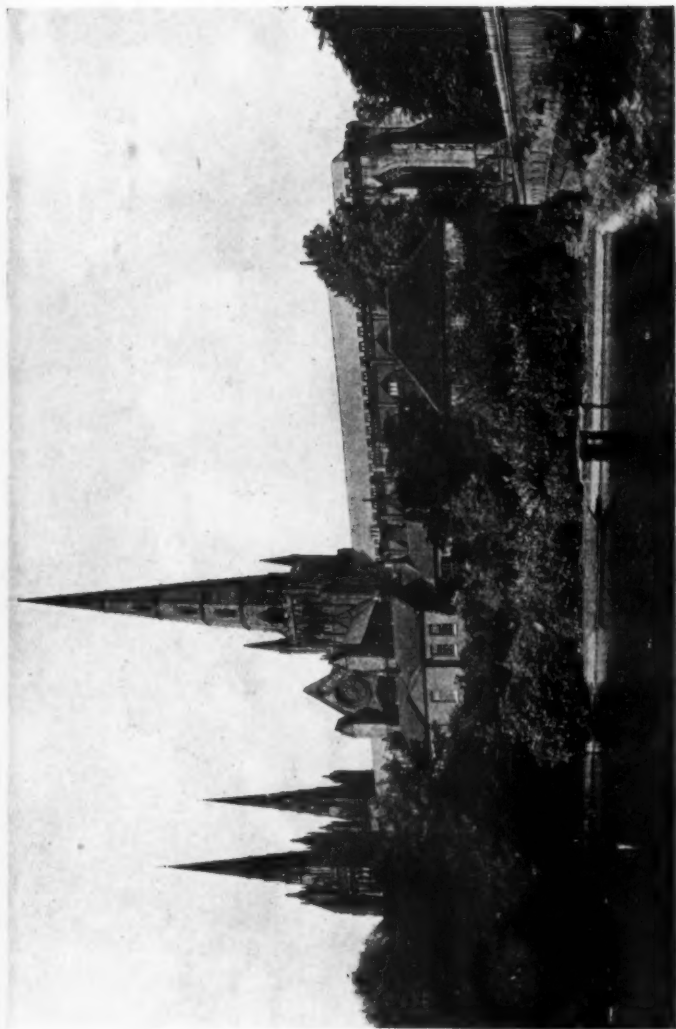
A fifth volume has been added to the works of Edmund Vance Cooke in the book of verse entitled "Little Songs for Two." All the poems strike a most intimate personal note, though often in a minor key. Variety of form, however, makes a monotone impossible. Many of the "Little Songs" sing themselves. "The Song You Sang for Me" is as musical as its theme. "The Bride" breathes the exquisite purity of its subject. Most of the experiences of meeting, loving, and parting seem to be embodied in these verses. A fresh impulse or emotion is revealed on every page.

RAMBLES IN SPAIN. By John D. Fitz-Gerald. 291 pp. 140 illustrations. 8vo, cloth. \$3.00 net; postage, 25 cents.

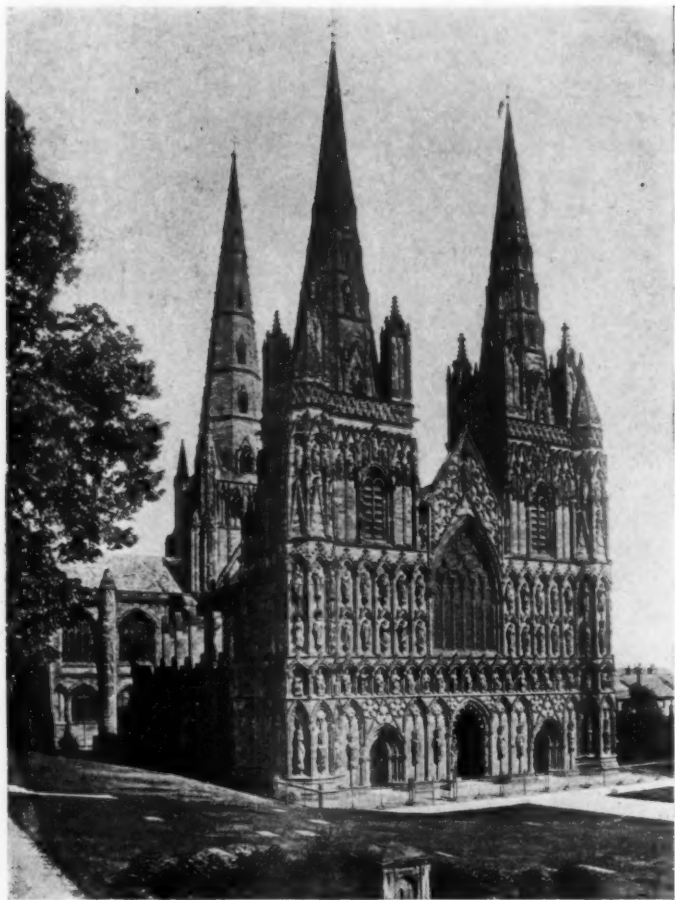
In this volume THE CHAUTAUQUAN'S "Reading Journey Through Spain" has been given handsome book form, with revisions and some expansion, accompanied by nearly 140 illustrations. The author seeks to guide American travelers who are visiting Spain to an intelligent view of the land, and also to convey a full idea of the land and people to other readers. Besides a general survey he treats specifically of the provinces he visited during two years residence. It is an exceedingly attractive travel book in a most interesting field.

SWITZERLAND: ITS SCENERY, HISTORY, AND LITERARY ASSOCIATIONS. By Oscar Kuhns. 8vo, cloth; 300 pp. 32 illustrations and map. \$2.00 net; postage, 20 cents.

Chautauquans will welcome this expansion into book form, handsomely bound, of the "reading journey" in Switzerland which first constituted a special number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN MAGAZINE. Prof. Kuhns dedicates the volume to the memory of his ancestors. The frontispiece is "The Tragedy of the Matterhorn" from Dore and the 32 full-page photographs have been chosen with a special view to giving a clear idea of mountain-climbing, travel by carriage road, railways, and boats, the crossing of glaciers, and other activities which are of necessity dealt with in travel for health or sightseeing. The book will delight the stay-at-home, equip the traveler to see what is worth while, and double the enjoyment of travel memories.



Lichfield Cathedral and the Minster Pool



West Front, Lichfield Cathedral